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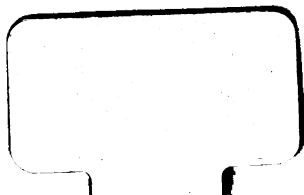
HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH

SANDWICK



BOOK ONE

KD 27861



JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH

BY

RICHARD L. SANDWICK

**PRINCIPAL DEERFIELD-SHIELDS HIGH SCHOOL, HIGHLAND
PARK, ILLINOIS; AUTHOR OF "THE HIGH SCHOOL
WORD BOOK" AND "HOW TO STUDY
AND WHAT TO STUDY"**

Book One

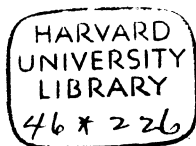
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2 G O

PREFACE

Material. — The grammar material in this series consists of sentences from everyday speech, containing thoughts interesting to young people.

The composition work aims to fix correct English idioms and to eliminate from oral and written speech both colloquialisms and solecisms. Studies made by investigators in the school systems of several American cities show that the same errors of speech recur everywhere among pupils; and these studies, as published by the National Society for the Study of Education, have been of service to the author.

Special attention is given to oral composition as the most fundamental need in English expression. The composition work is so arranged as to motivate the grammar. The material for composition is in part based on recommendations of the committee of the National Education Association of which Mr. James Fleming Hosic was chairman. Added to these are themes which the times demand, such as those related to the now vital subject of thrift and other ideals of good citizenship.

Arrangement. — The psychological rather than the strictly logical arrangement is employed; thus, parts of speech are taught along with parts of the sentence in order to strengthen both by the association.

The greatest care is taken to make the work conform to fundamentals of the learning process. The gradation of lessons is by such easy steps that the book almost teaches itself.

Methods. — The method is that of the laboratory—learning to do by doing: always something to do with lips or pencil registers something learned. This makes the work interesting to active children. A happily chosen device, called graphic analysis—simple, clear, searching—pictures the relations in

sentences and is believed to promote a clearer understanding of everything read and studied in every phase of school work.

Nomenclature. — The nomenclature is that adopted for universal use in all languages by committees of the National Education Association, the Association of Modern Language Teachers, the National Association of English Teachers, and the Classical Association. The adoption of this nomenclature makes the study of English grammar a preparation for the study of foreign languages, while it greatly simplifies the English grammar itself.

Practical Character. — A cursory glance will reveal the practical character of the work. Formal grammar is eliminated; every page is clearly helpful in securing good English expression.

Bacon's statement that "studies do not teach their use" does not apply here; for every chapter is so motivated that the pupil cannot help seeing that his English work is important for the needs of daily life. The pedagogical error of trying to teach English grammar by teaching definitions and rules is made impossible by omitting definitions in Books I and II, while class development of definitions for the notebook is substituted. The teacher will find definitions printed in small type in the appendix.

Suggestions. — Teachers are asked to make use from first to last of as many of the habit-forming drills in Appendix B as are needed. They are also asked to use the method of discrimination with association described on page 106 of the author's *How to Study*, asking questions like these: How is the adverb like an adjective? How is it unlike an adjective? How is a phrase like a clause? How unlike a clause? How is a predicate noun like a direct object? How unlike a direct object? How is a participle like an infinitive? How unlike an infinitive?

The "lessons" in this series are not to be regarded as daily assignments. The teacher must use her own judgment as to the ability of a particular class to complete a lesson in one, two, or three days.

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JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH

BOOK ONE

CHAPTER I SENTENCES AND NOUNS

Introduction

For a long time it has been true that thousands of positions in the government service, the army, and the navy, are open to those who can pass certain examinations which the government gives. In recent years great business houses have begun to choose employees in the same way.

Here is part of a test given by the great packing house of Swift & Co., Chicago, to young people who apply for positions in their office:

“Write a sentence telling how you came from the corner of State and Madison Streets to our office.”

To meet this test satisfactorily, one must know just what a sentence is, and just how to write it without grammatical errors and with no mistakes in punctuation. For example, the proper nouns must begin with capitals, and the punctuation marks — commas, semicolons, etc. — must be properly used.

One day some such test as this may stand, perhaps, between you and the position you want. If you are

not sure what a sentence is, or just which words are proper nouns, study the first chapter of this book carefully. It will depend in part on how well you learn these lessons what service you can one day do for your country or your home, what salary you can earn, and what friends you shall have.

Lesson 1

Sentences and How They are Formed

English grammar teaches us to speak and write correctly, and helps us to understand what we read.

It does this by explaining the forms of sentences and the uses of words that make sentences.

First we must learn what a sentence is. When we tell what we think, our words form sentences.

A sentence is a complete thought expressed in words. It brings two ideas together and asserts that one is true of the other.

It is the mark of a sentence that it leaves us satisfied. It tells us about something. It satisfies us because it gives us the complete thought.

If some one should say aloud, "The Indian and the buffalo," and stop there, it would not satisfy us, although two ideas are here brought together. We should be wondering what was going to be said about the Indian and the buffalo, until the words came out, "have both disappeared from our western plains." Now we have a complete thought — a complete sentence: "The Indian and the buffalo have both disappeared from our western plains."

Word Groups and Sentences

EXERCISE 1. — Put a period after the word groups below which make sentences. Put a dash after those that do not make sentences.

1. The beasts of the field and the birds of the air
2. The lion is the king of beasts
3. Two rabbits ran out of this bush
4. A great, gaunt, hungry wolf
5. The violet, my favorite flower
6. Having studied my lesson
7. Football, my favorite sport, is very exciting
8. Abraham Lincoln was a great and good man
9. A child, found in the snow
10. It is fun to sleep out under the stars

Making Sentences

EXERCISE 2. — Make sentences out of the groups of related words below by adding what is needed to make a complete thought. Put a period at the close of each sentence.

1. Big ripe watermelons
2. Growing hungry, the boys
3. A boat rigged to sail
4. A fox which was chased by dogs
5. A robin, hopping along the road,
6. A little girl, who had broken her doll,
7. A spring, bubbling up among the rocks,
8. A man whose hair was turning gray
9. The sun, coming out from the clouds
10. A purse that some one had lost

EXERCISE 3. — Think of five things in the room and write a sentence about each. Write about the clock,

a picture, the windows, the blackboard, the teacher, or the pupils. Begin each sentence with a capital letter and put a period after each.

Definition 1. — With the teacher's help, let each pupil endeavor to define a **sentence**. Write the best definition in your notebooks.

Definition 2. — Develop for your notebooks a good definition for **grammar**.

Lesson 2

Common Nouns

The words used in sentences are of different kinds.

A word very commonly used is the **noun**. The word *noun* is from an old French word meaning *name*. This word *noun* is used instead of the English word *name* because *name* is generally used to mean the *given name*, thus,

Has your dog a name?

Yes; his name is Flip.

All given names are nouns, but not all nouns are given names.

The names of classes and kinds of persons are nouns. Examples: *tailor, soldier, sister*.

The names of geographical forms are nouns. Examples: *island, city, river, state*.

The names of kinds of animals, substances, and things are nouns. Examples: *cow, glass, wagon*.

EXERCISE 1. — Tell of what each of these nouns is the name:

MODEL. — *Merchant* is a noun because it is the name of a class of persons.

Horse is a noun because it is the name of an animal.

Continent is a noun because it is the name of a geographical form.

Gold is a noun because it is the name of a substance.

merchant	horse	continent	gold
blacksmith	citizen	lake	tree
dollar	boy	country	vinegar
apple	sugar	doctor	iron
mountain	railroad	sailor	teacher

EXERCISE 2. — *a.* Write two nouns giving names of classes of men.

b. Write two nouns giving names of geographical forms.

c. Write two nouns giving names of animals.

d. Write two nouns giving names of substances.

e. Write two nouns giving names of things seen in the room where you are.

Lesson 3

Proper Nouns

1. The names given to particular persons are nouns.
Examples: *Jackson*, *George*, *William Smith*.

2. The names given to particular places are nouns.
Examples: *New York*, *Albany*, *America*.

3. The names given to particular animals are nouns.
Examples: *Fido*, *Dobbin*.

4. The names given to particular things of any kind are nouns; such as, months, days, buildings, boats, etc.
Examples: *Monitor* (a ship), *White House* (a building), *June* (a month), *Friday* (a day).

EXERCISE. — Tell why these words are nouns:

MODEL. — *John* is a noun because it is a name given to a particular person.

Colorado is a noun because it is a name given to a particular place.

October is a noun because it is a name given to a particular month.

John	January	Jehovah
Colorado	Henry	Jefferson
October	Hudson River	Cape Horn
Atlantic Ocean	Mr. Smith	Christmas
Pike's Peak	New Jersey	W. H. Harrison
Monday	Sacramento	

Lesson 4

Nouns as Names of Things Sensed

1. There are many nouns giving names to things which can be seen and felt. Examples: *box, penny, horse, boy.*

2. Some nouns give names to things which can be seen but not felt. Examples: *sky, horizon, smoke.*

3. Some nouns give names to things which can be felt but not seen. Examples: *sickness, joy, wind.*

4. Some nouns give names to things which can be heard, but not seen or felt. Examples: *music, discord, thunder.*

5. Some nouns give names to things which can only be tasted. Examples: *bitterness.*

6. Some nouns give names to things which can be thought of, but cannot be seen, felt, or heard. Examples: *heaven, to-morrow.*

EXERCISE. — 1. Write a noun giving the name of something which can be seen, felt, and tasted.

2. Write a noun giving the name of something which can only be seen.

3. Write a noun giving the name of something which can only be felt.

4. Write a noun giving the name of something which can only be heard.

5. Write a noun giving the name of something which can only be thought of, but not seen, felt, heard, or tasted.

Lesson 5

Testing Nouns

Not all words are nouns. It is sometimes hard to know which words are nouns and which are not. If a word is a noun, one can always express his feeling toward the person, place, or thing that the noun represents. Thus, I like *John*; I like *Colorado*; I like the *bread*; I dislike a *coward*. *John*, *Colorado*, *bread* and *coward* are nouns.

If the word is not a noun, it makes no sense to put it after *like* or *dislike*. Thus, I like *pretty*; I like *far*; I like *yet*. *Pretty*, *far* and *yet* are not nouns.

EXERCISE. — Apply this test and tell which words below are nouns. Put *the* before words whenever the sense will permit.

MODEL. — I like *dogs*. This makes good sense; therefore, *dogs* is a noun.

I like the *berries*. This makes good sense; therefore, *berries* is a noun.

I like the *or*. This does not make good sense; therefore, *or* is not a noun.

dogs	clothing	bread	miles
berries	and	breath	storm
or	cotton	object	pound
the	arch	picture	advantage
tempest	arm	cheap	beautiful
near	art	children	very
fish	swamp	glad	from
money	house	city	cannot
music	for	begin	yet
colored	fox	president	conquer
flew	alone	bath	beef
boat	went	weight	pretty
Christmas	shrill	place	hundred
carpet	constantly	color	noise
saucy	anchor	time	name
republic	angels	mind	answer
camp	animal	greenish	birthday
see	lesson	take	air
milk	apples	alive	goodness
charity	loads	case	odd
peace	confession	motion	bleed

Lesson 6

Finding Nouns

EXERCISE 1. — *a*. In your reading lesson pick out ten nouns.

b. In your geography lesson pick out ten nouns, five of which begin with a capital letter.

c. In your history lesson pick out ten nouns, two of which begin with a capital letter.

d. Tell why some nouns are begun with a capital letter.

EXERCISE 2. — Write nouns not seen in this lesson, giving the names of:

- a. Two particular persons that you know.
- b. Two particular towns that you have visited.
- c. Two school days.
- d. Two kinds of relatives; as, *sister*.
- e. Two kinds of workmen; as, *carpenter*.
- f. Two kinds of tradesmen; as, *merchant*.
- g. Two kinds of geographical places; as, *state*.
- h. Two kinds of birds.
- i. Two kinds of fish.

Most nouns may be used to represent more than one thing of its kind merely by adding **s**, or **es**, or by changing final **y** to **i** and then adding **es**, or by changing a letter within the word. When this change is made, the name is still a noun. Thus, *boy* is written *boys* to mean more than one; *business* is written *businesses*; *quality* is written *qualities*; and *man* is written *men*.

EXERCISE 3. — Make each of these nouns meaning *one* into a form of the same noun that will mean *more than one*:

house	kindness	place	class
dog	quantity	name	action
fox	distance		

Definition. — With the teacher's help, let each pupil try to define a **noun**, a **proper noun**. Let the best definitions be written in notebooks.

Lesson 7

Exercises in the Proper Use of Capitals

EXERCISE 1. — Why is *Fifth Street* a proper name in the *first* sentence below, but not in the *second*?

1. The house stands at the corner of Lincoln Avenue and Fifth Street.

2. At the fifth street to which we came, we turned to the right.

EXERCISE 2. — Why are the words *south*, *east*, *north*, and *west* capitalized in the first sentence below, but not in the second?

1. The South opposed him; but the North gave him a substantial vote. The West, and particularly the East, were solid for him.

2. The weather vane pointed east in the morning, north at noon, west in the afternoon, and south at sunset.

EXERCISE 3. — Account for the capitals or lack of capitals in the nouns repeated below:

A business men's association was formed and called the Hinsdale Business Men's Association.

Such words as *river*, *lake*, *bay*, *city*, *street*, etc., when used as part of the name or title of some particular place or thing are begun with capitals. Words which are of less importance — such as *of*, *a*, *and*, *the* — are not capitalized.

EXERCISE 4. — Write the following proper names correctly:

lake geneva

munroe street

rocky mountains

chicago chamber of commerce

hudson bay

bay of biscay

parents and teachers association

The nouns in titles used with a man's name are written with capitals; thus, *William McKinley, President of the United States*. If such nouns are not used to signify a particular man, they are not capitalized.

EXERCISE 5. — Explain why the same word is begun at one time with a capital and at another with a small letter in the sentences below:

1. Do you know that Doctor Jenkins is not a doctor of medicine but a doctor of divinity?

2. Among the younger college presidents is President Wilbur of Stanford University.

Begin with capitals the days of the week:

Sunday	Wednesday	Friday
Monday	Thursday	Saturday
Tuesday		

Also the months:

January	May	September
February	June	October
March	July	November
April	August	December

No capitals are used with names of seasons:

spring	summer	autumn	winter
--------	--------	--------	--------

EXERCISE 6. — Write this sentence correctly:

Cold weather that winter began on a friday early in november and lasted till spring.

Some subjects studied in school are capitalized; some are not. See if you can discover the reason for this in the nouns below.

English	history	grammar
French	arithmetic	reading

German	science	spelling
Latin	geography	writing

EXERCISE 7. — Write this sentence correctly.

Last autumn I began to study english, arithmetic, history, geography, and spelling.

Lesson 8

Punctuation of Titles and Complete Sentences

Rule

In the titles of books, magazine articles, and students' themes, the first word and all important words after it should begin with capital letters.

Example: *The Descent of Man.*

EXERCISE 1. — Write each of the titles below as it should be.

1. The conquest of Mexico
2. An elementary geography
3. Teaching an old dog new tricks
4. The dangers of football
5. How to play flinch
6. Insects as pests
7. The benefits of exercise
8. The proper way to sharpen a pencil
9. Canoeing in the rapids
10. Fishing for trout
11. A good cartoon
12. A fresh air camp

The Baby Blunder

We have learned what a sentence is. Failure to write complete sentences and failure to separate sentences from one another are mistakes made by young

children; such a mistake is called the "baby blunder." Try to find the mistake in 1 and 3 below:

1. *Blunder.* We came upon a group of deer. Evidently unaware of our approach.
2. *Corrected.* We came upon a group of deer, evidently unaware of our approach.
3. *Blunder.* Startled, they stood for a moment, looking at us, and John snapped his kodak just in time for a good picture of them, and here is the picture.
4. *Corrected.* Startled, they stood for a moment, looking at us. John snapped his kodak just in time for a good picture of them. Here is the picture.

EXERCISE 2. — Make the following into good sentences:

THE RACE

There are some familiar faces near the white columns Lambert, Ludwig, Peter, and Carl are all there, cool and in good skating order Hans is not far off evidently he is going to join in the race, for his skates are on Carl is more indignant than ever about it, but as three other peasant boys have entered, Hans is not alone

Twenty boys and twenty girls the latter by this time are standing in front, braced for the start, for they are to have the first "run" Hilda, Rychie, and Katrinka are among them — two or three bend hastily to give a last pull at their skate-straps it is pretty to see them stamp, to be sure that all is firm Hilda is speaking pleasantly to a graceful little creature in a red jacket and a new brown petticoat

Twenty girls are formed in a line the music has ceased

A man, whom we shall call the Crier, stands between the columns and the first judges' stand he reads the rules in a loud voice

*Lesson 9***Oral Composition and Paragraph Structure**

Some young people can express themselves so well that it is a pleasure to talk with them. Others spoil a good story and become tiresome because of careless habits of speech.

One of the most common of these careless habits comes from the use of *why*, *and*, *so*, and *say*, where these words are not needed. Some pupils are so badly given to the *why* habit that they can scarcely answer a question in class without beginning with *why*; others always mar a good story by beginning each sentence with either *and* or *so*.

As to the word *say*, is it not foolish to address another person with this word when you yourself have something to say? The other person's attention may be more politely gained by calling his name.

You are to tell your teacher about a picnic party that you once attended. Think beforehand what you want to say — how you happened to go, how you reached the place, what you did there, how the lunch was served, what you had to eat, when you went home, and how you enjoyed it all. Do not make this story a long one. Watch for and correct the bad habits mentioned above.

TO THE TEACHER. — After several stories have been told, write the details of one of the best on the board. Arrange the sentences in three paragraph groups after some such plan as the following:

First Paragraph: Who went, where, when, why, and how they went.

Second Paragraph: Description of the place visited and account of what was done there.

Third Paragraph: Dinner out of doors. What served as table, seats, food, etc. How it was enjoyed.

Point out to the pupils the paragraph groupings and the indenting of the first line of the paragraph. Have them notice that each sentence begins with a capital and closes with a period.

Lesson 10

Written Composition: The Picnic Party

Write in two or three paragraphs the story of the picnic party. Be sure to put in practice what you have learned thus far.

1. Make good sentences and punctuate each correctly.
2. Indent the first word of each paragraph.
3. Avoid slang.
4. Avoid the excessive use of *and*, *so*, and *why*.
5. Write the title above your theme. See that the first word of the title and each important word after it begins with a capital letter.
6. Read the story to the class and have the pupils help with it.

CHAPTER II

VERBS

Introduction

Every time you speak, people judge you both by what you say and by the way you say it. Good thoughts should be correctly expressed. The proper use of English will win for you favorable consideration. Good positions, friendships, and opportunities for success and happiness depend more than is generally thought on how one expresses himself. Test your grammatical ability with the expressions below. Which is correct?

1. The boy had swum, *or* The boy had swam?
2. I didn't do it yet, *or* I haven't done it yet?
3. I wish I was you, *or* I wish I were you?
4. Leave me go, *or* Let me go?
5. I seen you when I come in, *or* I saw you when I came in?

If you are not sure which of these verbs is the correct one, you should study this chapter carefully. What is a verb? You should begin by learning to recognize verbs whenever you meet them. Next learn how to use them correctly.

This chapter also introduces you to letter writing.

Lesson 11

Nouns and Verbs

Review the definition of a noun.

Tell in general what things are nouns.

The names of persons are what kind of nouns?

What kinds of nouns would be found in geographies?

What kinds of nouns would be found in histories?

What nouns could be named by looking at the things in a grocery store?

What nouns are the names of goods in a hardware store?

In a bakery? In a drug-store?

What nouns name tools, crops, and animals on a farm?

Many words tell an act done by some person, animal, or thing. The name of the person, animal, or thing that performs the act is a *noun*; but the word for the act is a *verb*.

John runs.

Here *John* is a noun, *runs* is a verb.

EXERCISE 1. — In the following sentences pick out the nouns and verbs:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Sailors sing. | 7. Jesus wept. |
| 2. Horses neigh. | 8. Day dawned. |
| 3. Babies cry. | 9. Boys play. |
| 4. Father works. | 10. Rain fell. |
| 5. Stars shine. | 11. Gold glitters. |
| 6. John reads. | 12. Nellie died. |

EXERCISE 2. — Place a noun before each of these verbs to tell who or what does or did the act mentioned:

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. ——— hooted. | 6. ——— chatter. |
| 2. ——— shout. | 7. ——— scratches. |
| 3. ——— called. | 8. ——— ran. |
| 4. ——— sew. | 9. ——— roared. |
| 5. ——— burns. | |

EXERCISE 3. — Place a verb after each of these nouns to tell what the person or thing does or did:

- | | |
|----------------|------------------|
| 1. The wind —. | 5. Bees —. |
| 2. Trees —. | 6. William —. |
| 3. The bird —. | 7. The farmer —. |
| 4. Mice —. | 8. The lark —. |

*Lesson 12***Verbs as Action Words**

EXERCISE 1. — Since most verbs tell something to do, they may be acted out. See if you can act out these verbs before the class.

- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1. Stand | 15. sneeze | 29. look | 43. ring |
| 2. sit | 16. whistle | 30. leap | 44. guide |
| 3. bow | 17. sleep | 31. think | 45. stretch |
| 4. nod | 18. wake | 32. scrub | 46. sew |
| 5. wink | 19. moan | 33. wash | 47. sow |
| 6. shake | 20. smile | 34. skate | 48. pump |
| 7. blow | 21. walk | 35. whisper | 49. kick |
| 8. throw | 22. run | 36. climb | 50. slide |
| 9. catch | 23. fly | 37. eat | 51. strike |
| 10. take | 24. skip | 38. drink | 52. hit |
| 11. give | 25. hop | 39. move | 53. hold |
| 12. speak | 26. stumble | 40. jump | 54. read |
| 13. laugh | 27. stagger | 41. hoe | 55. write |
| 14. weep | 28. smell | 42. sweep | |

EXERCISE 2. — Bring to class five action words not mentioned above, and be ready to act them out.

*Lesson 13***Verbs that do not Express Action**

EXERCISE 1. — Turn to your last reading lesson and write down all the verbs expressing action that you can find.

Most verbs express action; but some verbs do not express action.

John *has* a pony.

Has is a verb expressing possession; it does not express action.

Mrs. Jones *keeps* a horse.

Does the verb *keeps* express action?

This jar *contains* water.

Does the verb *contains* express action?

The book *lies* on the table.

Does the verb *lies* express action?

Camels *exist* a long time without drinking.

Does the verb *exist* express action?

EXERCISE 2. — Write a list of verbs that do not express action.

The most common verb we have, the verb *be*, does not express action. This common verb, *be*, has many other forms; *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *has been*, *have been*, *will be*, and *shall be* are the commonest forms. Write all of these, beginning with *be*, and commit the list to memory.

The verb *be* in one form or other is often used to help another verb express action. Examples:

John *is* running.

Mary *was* talking.

The scout *has been* captured.

We *shall be* seen.

The pictures *are being* framed.

EXERCISE 3. — *a.* Make a sentence in which *is* is used as a helping verb before the verb of action, *find* (finding, found).

b. Make sentences in which *was*, *were*, *has been* and *will be* are each used as helping verbs.

Definition 4. — As a class exercise make a definition for a **verb**. Write it in your notebooks.

Lesson 14

Helping Verbs or Auxiliaries

REVIEW. — *a.* Name all the verbs you can that do not express action.

b. Name the forms of the verb *be* that may be used as helping verbs with verbs of action.

Besides the verb *be* there are several other verbs that may be put before another verb to help express action.

EXERCISE 1. — Memorize these helping verbs:

can, could	may, might, must
will, would	have, has, had
shall, should	"

EXERCISE 2. — Write the words, *I go*, putting the word *can* before *go*; next write it with *could*; and so on till you have used each of the helping words in Exercise 1. See how each gives a different meaning to the verb *go*.

Helping verbs are called **auxiliary verbs**. They come before the principal verb; and with it make what is called a **verb-phrase**.

EXERCISE 3. — Tell which are the main verbs and which are the auxiliaries in the verb-phrases below. (The verb-phrases are in italics.)

1. Father *is coming*.
2. The big tree *has fallen*.
3. An accident *may have happened*.
4. John *should have written*.
5. A larger mark *would have been seen*.
6. The ball *may have been lost*.
7. The sun *will shine*.
8. The horses *must work*.
9. The work *has been done*.
10. The boys *can play*.
11. The man *must have been injured*.

Lesson 15

Practice in Using Irregular Verbs

Some verbs end in **ed** whether used alone or after one of the auxiliaries *has, have, had* and *be*. These are called **regular verbs**.

Example: I *praised* him. I *have praised* him.

Some verbs have a special form to use after the auxiliaries *has, have, had* and *be*. These are called **irregular verbs**.

Example: He *went* home. He *has gone* home.

In the list of verbs below the third form or the one in the last column must be used after the auxiliaries mentioned above.

1. bear	bore	borne
2. blow	blew	blown
3. come	came	come
4. choose	chose	chosen
5. do	did	done
6. draw	drew	drawn

VERBS

7. drink	drank	drunk
8. drive	drove	driven
9. eat	ate	eaten
10. fall	fell	fallen
11. fly	flew	flown
12. give	gave	given
13. speak	spoke	spoken
14. spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
15. steal	stole	stolen
16. swim	swam	swum
17. take	took	taken
18. go	went	gone
19. grow	grew	grown
20. know	knew	known
21. lie	lay	lain
22. ride	rode	ridden
23. ring	rang	rung
24. rise	rose	risen
25. run	ran	run
26. see	saw	seen
27. shake	shook	shaken
28. sing	sang	sung
29. sink	sank	sunk
30. throw	threw	thrown
31. weave	wove	woven
32. write	wrote	written
33. tear	tore	torn
34. break	broke	broken

EXERCISE 1. — Use every one of these verbs in sentences like the following:

1. They come now.
2. They came yesterday.
3. They have come.

EXERCISE 2. — Use every one of the verbs above except *swim* and *throw* in sentences like the following:

1. It blows now.
2. It blew yesterday.
3. It was blown.

Lesson 16

Verb Practice

EXERCISE. — Make sentences having noun subjects that fit the list of verbs in the previous lesson; thus:

1. The tree bears fruit now.
2. The tree bore fruit last year.
3. The tree has always borne fruit.
4. The wind blows to-day.
5. The wind blew yesterday.
6. The wind has blown for several days.

TO THE TEACHER. — Turn to Appendix B, Habit-forming Drill, No. xxiii, for further practice.

Lesson 17

Composition: Letter Writing

Some time you will have to take your place in the world as men of affairs or women of affairs. Let us suppose that that time has come. You are engaged in business. You are going to do a mail order business. You are located in a little country town. Farmers will bring you their butter, eggs, vegetables, and fruit as fast as you secure city customers for them. You will take part of what each customer pays and give the rest to the farmer. You have a stenographer to whom you dictate your business letters. Your mother and father are dependent on you now, and you must support them. They have done so much for you in

years past that you decide first of all to write to them in your own hand a letter of appreciation.

Read the model letter below:

Daisy Hollow, Mass.

June 1, 1919.

Dear Mother and Father,

I am all ready to open my office and warehouse for business. I have already secured a few customers in the city and have engaged the products of two farms with which to supply them. But before the first order goes out, I want to write a letter to you who are my chief creditors.

I have just been counting up how much I owe you. I find that it would amount to quite a handsome sum if it were turned into cash. You will find the items enclosed.

Surely I ought to appreciate all you have done for me. But I know that money could never measure your loving care nor the lessons in courtesy, truth, and honesty you have taught me. These lessons, I hope, will help me to succeed in the new business. I shall try to earn enough money to repay you in part for all you have done for me.

Your loving son,

BENNY.

Mr. and Mrs. John Bingham,

1005 Royston St.,

Boston, Mass.

Early Childhood

Mother as nurse for 4 helpless years at \$10 a week	\$2040.00
Board for the same time at \$1.50 per week	312.00
Clothing at \$25 per year	100.00
Doctor's bills	80.00
	<hr/> \$2532.00
6 % interest on \$1532 for average time of 10 years	1519.20
	<hr/> \$4051.20

Boyhood

Board and room for 8 years at \$4 per week	\$1664.00
Clothing at \$30 a year	240.00
Doctor and special nursing	200.00
School books, toys, etc.....	180.00
	<hr/>
	\$2284.00
6 % interest on \$2284 for average time of 4 years	548.16
	<hr/>
Boyhood	\$2832.16
Childhood	4051.20
	<hr/>
	\$6883.36

*Lesson 18***Transcribing**

EXERCISE. — Copy the letter above, noting all marks of punctuation.

*Lesson 19***Financial Statement**

EXERCISE. — Inquire of your parents to learn how great an expense you have been to them up to the present time. From figures you secure prepare a statement similar to the one above.

*Lesson 20***Writing from Dictation**

EXERCISE. — Write from dictation the letter in Lesson 17, keeping the same form and punctuation as in the original.

*Lesson 21***A Letter of Appreciation**

Write your mother a letter of appreciation, enclosing the statement you made for Lesson 19. Be sure to have

the heading of your letter show the place where your business is located and the date of your writing. Place this heading at the upper right-hand side of your paper. Punctuate properly with commas and periods. Put the salutation, *Dear Mother*, below the heading and at the left side of the page, with a comma at the close. Under this comma begin your letter. Divide it into paragraphs; at the close, on a separate line to the left of the center of the page, give some token of your regard for her; underneath sign your name.

At the left and below your own name, write the name and address of your parents. If the letter is lost, it can thus be returned to them.

Lesson 22

Criticism and Revision

Let the pupils help one another to make a correct and interesting letter. Rewrite until the letter is worthy; then let them hand it to their parents.

Suggestion. — This letter should occupy the class for several recitations.

Other Letter Projects

If it is desired to give variety to the work and afford a choice of projects, the following suggestions may be tried:

1. Letters home describing journeys to lands suggested by geography lessons. The *Stoddard Lectures* and other volumes of travel, if used as reference books, will add to the zest. Illustrate the letters with pictures from railway and steamship folders and from popular magazines.

2. Letters such as might have passed between the characters in Scott's *Lady of the Lake*, or in some other book.

3. Real letters to absent schoolmates, describing interesting work in other classes, such as domestic science, or school visits to farm, shop, museum, or art gallery.

Lesson 22a

Obtaining Free Literature on Gardens

This lesson is optional for pupils interested in home gardens. Write to the Department of Agriculture in the State University and to the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., asking for whatever literature the Department may have for free distribution on the subject of home gardens, including garden pests, such as weeds and insects, and garden friends, such as birds and toads.

Be careful to punctuate your letter properly. Pay close attention to paragraph and sentence structure.

CHAPTER III

PARTS OF THE SENTENCE: SUBJECT, VERB, AND COMPLEMENT

Introduction

Which is correct?

1. The man laid down, *or* The man lay down?
2. The hen sits on her eggs, *or* The hen sets on her eggs?
3. He raised up, *or* He rose up?
4. It is I, *or* It is me?
5. It must be him, *or* It must be he.

In order to understand clearly the mistakes made above, you must know the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs. This you will learn in Chapter III.

Pupils who are in the habit of reading good books and of hearing only good English spoken, can generally tell what is correct. In order *to be sure* of your choice it is necessary to know *why* the one form is correct and the other incorrect. Study this chapter carefully. If you learn these lessons thoroughly, you will find them helpful all your life.

This chapter continues the practice of letter writing.

Lesson 23

Subject and Predicate

The pupil now knows that the word *laughed* is a verb, and that the word *John* is a noun. If a sentence is made of these two parts of speech, thus, *John laughed*,

the noun *John* is known as the **subject** of the sentence, and the verb *laughed* is known as the **predicate**.

The words *noun* and *verb* are applied to words as parts of speech, whether the words are in sentences or not. But the words **subject** and **predicate** are applied to the two parts of a sentence only. No noun can be a subject except in a sentence, and no verb can be a predicate except in a sentence.

We have already learned that there must be two parts in a sentence. One part is the *subject*; it usually comes first, to tell that about which a person is thinking. The other part is the *predicate*; it follows and tells what is thought about the subject.

EXERCISE 1.—Turn to Lesson 11, Exercise 1, and pick out the subject and the predicate of each sentence there.

EXERCISE 2.—Write the sentences in Lesson 14, and show what noun is used as subject by putting under the subject two lines closed at the ends, thus, . Show which is the predicate by putting under each verb two lines not closed at the ends.

MODEL. — Dogs bark.

Father is coming.

 =
The big tree has fallen.

Lesson 24

Transitive Verbs and Direct Objects

The verbs we have so far used with noun subjects have made complete sentences; thus, John *laughed*.

But many verbs cannot make a complete sentence; for instance, if some one should say, "John *broke* —," the question would at once be asked, "John *broke* what?" The mind is not satisfied with "John *broke* —," because this is not a complete sentence. But if we say, "John *broke* a window," then the sentence is complete. Such verbs as *broke* are called **transitive verbs**.

The word *transitive* is applied to those verbs in which the action *passes over* from the subject, which is the doer of the act, to some person or thing which receives the act; thus,

John broke a window.

The verb *broke* shows that the action of breaking passes from the doer, *John*, to that which receives the act, the *window*. The word *window* in this sentence has a use known as the **direct object**.

The dog frightened the cat.

Here the verb *frightened* shows that the act of frightening passes from the *dog*, the doer, to the *cat*, the receiver of the act. The word *cat* is used as **direct object**.

The boy has a book.

Here the verb *has* indicates not action but possession, which passes over to *book*, the **direct object**.

Definition. — With the help of the teacher let each pupil try to define a **subject**, a **verb**, a **transitive verb**. Write the best definitions in your notebook.

EXERCISE 1. — In the sentences below, each direct object is in italics.

MODEL. — John shot a young rabbit.

Shot is a transitive verb. *John* names the doer of the act of shooting, and *rabbit* names the receiver of the act. *John* is the subject, *rabbit* is the direct object.

1. John shot a young rabbit.
2. Peter bit his thumb.
3. Tom saw a pig.
4. The boy frightened his sister.
5. The horse is eating oats.
6. Men have mowed the field.
7. Daisies cover the ground.
8. The cowboy will ride a bucking pony.
9. Edith can play the piano.
10. The cat has spied a bird.
11. William will comb his hair.

Analysis. — When we tell the parts and the relations of words in a sentence we analyze the sentence *orally*. When we picture the relations of words, or show the parts of a sentence by drawings, we analyze it *graphically*.

EXERCISE 2. — You have given the oral analysis of the sentences above. Now make a graphic analysis of each as in the model below:

MODEL. — John shot → a young rabbit.

TO THE TEACHER: — Do not spend less than two days on this lesson. For additional exercises choose sentences from Appendix A.

Lesson 26

Linking Verbs and Predicate Nouns

Review the forms of the verb *be*. Is *be* a transitive verb? Why not?

Transitive verbs are not the only verbs that take a noun after them. Some verbs that are not transitive require a noun to complete their meaning. The verb *be* is often followed by a **predicate noun**. *Be* is then a **linking verb**.

Thistles are weeds.

Notice that *are* only couples or links together two ideas. It expresses no action as passing over from a doer to a receiver. *Are* has about the same meaning as the equality sign; thus,

Thistles = weeds. (Thistles equal weeds.)

If we say, "Washington became —," the question is asked, "Became what?" The answer makes a complete sentence, "Washington became commander-in-chief." The last noun, *commander-in-chief*, and the first noun, *Washington*, refer to the same person.

The English beheaded their king.

Charles I was their king.

Notice that the noun *king* is found after the verb in both sentences. In the first sentence, *king* names the receiver of an act, the act of being *beheaded*. In the second sentence no act is expressed; two nouns are merely linked together. *Beheaded* is a transitive verb; *was* is not transitive. *Was* merely couples or links together the subject and the predicate noun and shows that they refer to the same person. The difference between the transitive verb *beheaded* and the verb *was* is shown graphically below:

The English beheaded → their king.

Charles was = their king.

In the first sentence the noun *king* is the **direct object**. In the second sentence the noun *king* is what is called a **predicate noun**.

EXERCISE 1. — Which of the sentences below contain predicate nouns?

1. Crickets chirp.
2. The sun gives light.
3. Some men become soldiers.
4. The band played.
5. The light was a candle.
6. The trapper followed an antelope.
7. The statesman was made president.
8. There has been a shower.
9. God is a spirit.
10. General Hull seemed a coward.
11. Peter has been a fisherman.
12. Brutus overthrew a tyrant.

EXERCISE 2. — Which sentences in Exercise 1 contain direct objects?

EXERCISE 3. — In which sentences in Exercise 1 does the verb make a complete predicate without either direct object or predicate noun?

EXERCISE 4. — Make a graphic analysis of all the sentences above in Exercise 1.

Definition. — Let each pupil, with the teacher's help, try to define and illustrate for the notebooks **direct object** and **predicate noun**.

NOTE. — Spend three or four days on this lesson. See Appendix A for additional material.

Lesson 27

Direct Objects and Predicate Nouns Distinguished

John is *calling* his sister.

REVIEW QUESTIONS. — 1. Why is *is calling* a transitive verb?

2. What is found after transitive verbs?

3. Could a verb which takes no direct object be transitive?

4. Is the direct object the doer, or is it the receiver of the act?

5. Where is the direct object generally found, before or after the verb?

EXERCISE 1. — Rewrite the sentence above so that *John* comes after the verb and *his sister* comes before.

1. Who now is the doer of the act?

2. Who is the receiver?

3. Which noun is the subject?

4. Which noun is the object?

5. Make a rule telling where the subject is generally found in English sentences and where the object is generally found, — whether before or after the verb.

EXERCISE 2. — Write the same sentence again. This time put both the subject and the object before the verb as the Romans did who used the Latin language.

1. Can you tell who does the calling?

2. Can you tell who is called?

3. Can you tell which noun is subject, and which is object?

William was called king.

EXERCISE 3. — 1. Is *William* the doer of any act here?

2. Do *king* and *William* refer to the same person?

3. What use then has the noun *king*?

4. Where in the sentence is the predicate noun found?

5. Why do you think it is called a predicate noun?

EXERCISE 4. — Analyze ten short sentences in your reading lesson by telling which words are noun subjects, which words are verbs, and which are objects of the verb or predicate nouns. The teacher will select the sentences.

Lesson 28

Graphic Analysis of Simple Sentences

REVIEW. — 1. Remember that every sentence has a subject and a predicate. Remember that a noun is generally the subject, and a verb (often helped by auxiliaries) is always the predicate.

Example: Rain has been falling

Subject

Predicate

2. Remember that the **direct object** is the receiver of an act, and seldom refers to the same person or thing as the subject.

Example: Cromwell led his army.

3. Remember that the **predicate noun** refers to the same person or thing as the subject.

Example: Cromwell was a good leader.

EXERCISE. — Picture the relations of nouns and verbs in the sentences below. Put the arrow-head after the transitive verbs followed by direct ob-

jects. Put the equality sign after the verbs followed by predicate nouns.

MODEL. — The boys caught → the rabbits.

The man had been = a sailor.

1. Haste makes waste.
2. Tadpoles become frogs.
3. The robins are building a nest.
4. The thief has been caught.
5. The soldiers captured a fort.
6. The dog carries a basket.
7. Harry has been learning a lesson.
8. The children can find berries.
9. Ducks should have water.
10. The physician will cure the patient.
11. Moses was a leader.
12. The wolf killed a sheep.
13. The visitor seemed an angel.
14. Mary has become a nurse.
15. The cat feared the water.
16. The man remains an invalid.
17. Boys throw stones.
18. The action will have been found a mistake.
19. The lawyer should have been a blacksmith.
20. The braggart was a fool.
21. Life is a dream.
22. Misery loves company.
23. Friend supports friend.
24. Fortune favors the enterprise.
25. The children are sisters.
26. The boys were brothers.
27. The farmers are cutting grass.
28. Mother has been sweeping the room.
29. Fish must have been nibbling the bait.

Lesson 29

Pronouns as Objects and as Predicates

The words *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, and *they* are used only as subject or predicate.

The words *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, and *them* are used as direct object, never as subject or predicate.

EXERCISE. — Insert in the blanks below the right pronouns from those in the parentheses.

1. — and — came home together (he, him; I, me).
2. It is — (her, she).
3. I saw — and — (she, her; them, they).
4. It was not —; it was — (them, they; we, us).
5. It will not be — (I, me).

DRILL. — Turn to Appendix B, Charts II, III, and IV.

Lesson 30

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

The intransitive verbs *lie*, *sit*, and *rise* must not be used as if transitive; that is to say, they must not be used with an object.

The transitive verbs *lay*, *set*, and *raise* must not be used as if intransitive; that is to say, they must not be used without an object.

EXERCISE. — Put the right word in these blanks and tell why it is correct and why the other word would be wrong.

lie, lay

Mary will — down.

Mary will — her book down.

sit, set

1. Mother — and sews.
2. She has — the pitcher down.

rise, raise

1. John — pigs.
2. The pupils — and pass out.

DRILL. — Turn to Appendix B, Chart XI.

QUESTIONS. — How have you been helped by learning the subject, the object, and the predicate noun of sentences? How have you been helped by learning about transitive and intransitive verbs?

Lesson 31

The Use of *Is, Are, Was, Were*

EXERCISE 1. — Examine these sentences and see when to use *is* and when to use *are*. The subject of each sentence is in italics.

1. *Apples* are ripe.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
2. *These* are ripe.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
3. *This* is not ripe.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
4. *All* are red.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
5. *They* are not all ripe.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
6. *Two eggs* in this basket are broken.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
7. *One egg* is cracked.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?
8. *You* are right, Benny.
Does the subject mean one or more than one?

9. *It* is cracked.

Does the subject mean one or more than one?

10. *Each* of these eggs is sound.

Does the subject mean one or more than one?

11. *Benny* is careful.

Does the subject mean one or more than one?

12. *He* is a good business man.

Does the subject mean one or more than one?

EXERCISE 2. — Rewrite the twelve sentences above, but change *are* to *were* and *is* to *was*. What change must be made in each subject? Notice the eighth sentence.

Rule. — When the subject means one, use — to express present time and — to express past time.

When the subject means more than one, use — to express present time and — to express past time.

When the subject is *you*, always use — and —, whether one person or more than one is meant.

EXERCISE 3. — Fill in the blanks in the rule above with the proper verb, *is*, *are*, *was*, or *were*.

Lesson 32

Practice in the Correct Use of *Is*, *Are*, *Don't*, and *Doesn't*

EXERCISE 1. — Fill in the blank below with the right word, *is* or *are*.

1. Each of the boys — coming.
2. All of the boys — coming.
3. You, John, — my friend.
4. Summer — here and birds — on the wing.

The incorrect use of *don't* and *ain't* mars the speech of many pupils.

Avoid *ain't* altogether.

Don't is properly used as a contraction, not of *does not*, but of *do not*. Use *don't* only where *do not* can properly be used. He *don't* is incorrect, because we cannot say, *He do not*.

EXERCISE 2. — Use *don't* or *doesn't* correctly in sentences after each of the following subjects:

he	she	it	they
we	you	the man	the men
George	Will	John	the girls
the boys	Jennie	Margaret	Bessie

EXERCISE 3. — Say over the nonsense rhyme below from day to day till you know it:

He doesn't, she doesn't, it doesn't go.
 Fred doesn't, Mary doesn't, Bob doesn't; so
 I don't, you don't, we don't, they don't.
 It doesn't much matter, the wind doesn't blow.
 Doesn't he, doesn't she, doesn't it pay?
 Don't I, don't you, don't we, don't they?
 Doesn't it hurt, and doesn't it pain?
 Doesn't it snow, and doesn't it rain?

Lesson 33

Correct Use of Certain Verbs

There are several common verbs which are often improperly used.

Do not say *fix* when you mean *mend* or *repair*; *leave* when you mean *let*; *expect* when you mean *suppose*; *stopping* when you mean *staying*; *show up* when you

mean *appear*; *get to go* when you mean *get a chance to go*, or *be able to go*. Notice the correct expressions below.

1. The clock has been *fixed*, means that it has been *fastened*.
2. The clock has been *repaired* so that it now keeps good time.
3. *Leave me go*, too, doesn't mean *let me go*, too.
4. I *suppose* you had a good time as you *expected*.
5. We are *staying* at the Hotel Del Monte for a few days.
6. John did not *appear* at dinner time (not "show up").
7. Will you *be able to go* to-night? (not "get to go").

Lesson 34

A Business Letter

Dictate to your stenographer a circular letter, advertising your farm products to prospective customers.

The heading of the letter will be the same as in the letter to your mother. Will the address be the same? How and where should it be written? What will the salutation be? Let us study the models below.

MODEL LETTER, No. 1.

*Daisy Hollow, Mass.,
March 2, 1919.*

Mrs. John Smith,
275 Drum Street,
Boston, Mass.

Dear Madam,

I am offering for sale a number of fine young trees and shrubs at very attractive prices. These plants are grown in the country under conditions that make them hardy and enable me to sell them at a price impossible to the ordinary greenhouse. Please notice the list below:

Scarlet Maples	5 ft. high, each . .	\$1.75
Elms	4 ft. high each .	1.25
Poplar, quick growing . .	4 to 5 ft., each . .	.75
Juniper, small	each30
Hawthorne	36 to 40 inches . .	.60
Bridal wreath25
Wild Rose10

These prices cannot be maintained indefinitely, as the stock is fast going. I think you will recognize the opportunity to secure choice ornamental shrubs at extremely favorable prices. If so, please send us your order promptly before the opportunity is gone.

Yours very truly,
BENJAMIN F. BINGHAM.

The parts of a letter are:

1. The heading.
2. The address.
3. The salutation.
4. The body.
5. The complimentary close.
6. The signature.

MODEL LETTER, No. 2

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. (Heading) | <i>Beulah, Mich., Aug. 1, 1919.</i> |
| 2. (Address) | Miss Jennie Jacobson, |
| 2. (Address) | 24 Elm St., Salem, Mass. |
| 3. (Salutation) | <i>Dear Madam:</i> |
| 4. (Body) | I am in receipt of your letter |
| 4. (Body) | inquiring |
| 4. (Body) | |
| 4. (Body) | |
| 5. (Complimentary close) | Very truly yours, |
| 6. (Signature) | JAMES JOHNSON. |

MODEL LETTER, No. 3

229 Central Ave.,
Bluffton, Cal.,
Dec. 12, 1919.

The Emporium Co.,
San Francisco, Cal.

Gentlemen:

Please send me by Wells Fargo Express fifty (50) yards of silk ribbon, light blue in color and a half inch wide. Send C. O. D. to the address given above.

Kindly hurry the order, as I need the ribbon at once.

Yours truly,

(Miss) MARGARET HOLT.

QUESTIONS. — Of how many lines does the heading of Letter No. 3 consist? What is in this heading that is not in that of Letter No. 1? If a town is large enough to have house delivery of mail, the street address should be given. If all mail is delivered at the post-office only, then the street and number are unnecessary. Mail carriers are found in towns with a population of 5000 and upward.

Examine the punctuation of the heading in Letter No. 2.

What does *Ave.* mean? Why is it followed by a period? Where are commas found?

Why are the street and number not given in the address? Mail clerks and carriers know where to find well-known firms. Some mail order firms in large cities receive wagon loads of mail daily.

What is the salutation in Letter No. 2? How is it punctuated?

What is the complimentary close? How is it punctuated?

Women give their title, Miss or Mrs., so that correspondents will know which to use in addressing the reply.

MODEL LETTER, No. 4

254 Bell Ave., Princeton, N. J.

Jan. 10, 1919.

Albert, Smith & Co.,
250 Main St.,
Albany, N. Y.

Dear Sirs:

Enclosed please find check for

.
.
.

Yours truly,

MARY OKE

(MRS. WILLIAM OKE)

A married woman should be addressed by the title *Mrs.* and the husband's given name and initial, unless it is known that she prefers to have her own given name used. She should give on the line below her signature the name by which her correspondent may address her.

EXERCISE.—Write from dictation correctly Models 1, 2, 3 and 4. Punctuate as you write.

*Lesson 35***The Parts of a Letter**

The *heading* of a letter gives the address of the writer and the date of writing. It is written at the upper right-hand corner of the page, about an inch from the top, and consists of one, two, or three lines. Numerals for street number and date are written as figures; abbreviations for state and month are followed by periods. Each part of the heading — street address, city, state, day of the month and year — is separated from the rest by a comma. A period closes the heading. The street address is omitted in towns having no mail carriers; each line of the heading is indented.

The *address* of a letter is found at the left margin below the heading. It gives the title and name of the person or firm addressed, his street and number, city and state. Each of these items is separated from the others by commas, and periods are also placed after abbreviations. The street and number are omitted in letters addressed to small towns. The address usually consists of two lines, but may be written on three. Each line except the first is indented, and the whole ends with a period.

Titles should be written in full, as *Professor*, *General*, etc. The words *His Excellency the Governor* should be used in the address to a governor; the President should be addressed, *The President*.

The *salutation* of letters written to strangers should be one of these, *Dear Sir*: *Dear Sirs*: *Dear Madam*:

Gentlemen. Each word of the salutation is capitalized. The salutation is begun at the left margin one line below the address. It is followed by a colon. *Dear Madam:* is used in addressing both a married and an unmarried woman. *Your Excellency*, followed by a colon, is used in addressing the President of the United States, the governor of a state, and an ambassador. *Your Honor*, followed by a colon, is used in addressing the mayor of a city and the judge of a court.

In writing to an acquaintance, even if on business matters, the correct salutation is one of these:

My dear Mrs. Jones,
My dear Doctor Black,
My dear Miss French,
Dear Mrs. Jones,
Dear Doctor Black,
Dear Miss French,

The word *dear* after *My* is not capitalized. Only the titles *Mr.* and *Mrs.* should be abbreviated; others should be written in full. Do not put more than one title before a name in the salutation. Follow the salutation to an acquaintance with a comma.

The *complimentary* close most frequently found in business letters is *Yours truly*, or *Very truly yours*. *Sincerely yours*, and *Yours very sincerely*, are also in good taste. *Respectfully yours*, and *Yours very respectfully*, are used in writing to persons of high position. Only the first word of these forms should be capitalized, and a comma should follow the last word. Such forms

as *Your loving sister*, *Affectionately yours*, *Your sincere friend*, are used only in letters to relatives and intimate friends. The complimentary close in a friendly letter is often preceded by an expression of kind regards to other members of the family, thus,

Please express my kindest regards to your mother.

Sincerely yours,

The *address on the envelope* repeats the address within the letter in wording, punctuation, and indention, except that three lines, sometimes four, rather than two, are used. The name of the person addressed appears at about the middle and right-hand side of the envelope. Commas at the close of the lines may be omitted.

Albert, Smith & Co.

250 Main St.

Albany, N. Y.

Lesson 36

Oral Composition: Dictating a Letter

You have learned how to write a letter. You may now write one advertising your goods. What can you say of your vegetables to attract buyers? What can you say of your fruit? Of your butter? Of your eggs?

Perhaps you will not wish to advertise all of these in one letter. Make your letter short and to the point. Address it to some one in the city or town nearest you.

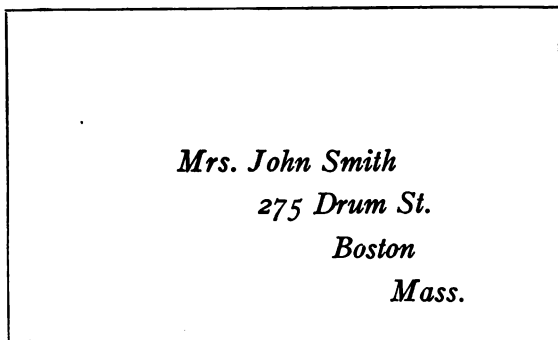
Make a few notes of what you propose to offer in your letter. Your teacher will be the stenographer. Dictate it to her and let the class criticize it.

Lesson 37

Written Composition: Writing a Circular Letter

Write your letter in full.

Rule and copy the model for the envelope printed below.



Fold a paper to represent an envelope. Draw lines in a corner for the stamp. Address it to the person to whom you are sending a circular letter. Put the letter inside.

CHAPTER IV

ADJECTIVES AND BUSINESS

Introduction

A physician wished to hire a girl to take charge of his outer office during the summer while his regular assistant was away on her vacation. His patients were people of culture; he needed an educated and refined girl, — one who would reflect credit on her employer's practice.

In answer to his advertisement three schoolgirls came. From the inner office he heard them talking. Their conversation is given below. After reading what they said, can you tell which girl he chose? Or did he dismiss all three?

Mary. Well, well, girls! It's *funny* we all should meet at the same time.

Edith (looking around). It's a *swell* place, isn't it? I wonder how much the doctor will pay.

Minnie. Not so *terrible* much, — seven dollars a week.

Edith. Why, I think that's *grand*. Don't you think seven a week is *grand*, Mary?

Mary. Yes, it's *awful* good pay.

Doctor (to himself). Hear the adjectives which those girls use! "Funny!" "swell!" "terrible!" "awful!" What would my patients think if they overheard such expressions in this office!

In this chapter you are going to learn to use adjectives correctly, so that you need never lose an opportunity for successful service through your ignorance of them. You will also learn something more of business correspondence.

Lesson 38

What Adjectives Are

We have learned about nouns and verbs. Another kind of word used in sentences is the **adjective**.

The word adjective means **put to**, because adjectives are words put next to nouns to point out, number, or describe.

Adjectives **modify** nouns; that is, they give definiteness to the idea in nouns. Notice how the noun *apple* grows in definiteness as adjectives are added to number and describe the apple.

1. Apple (unmodified, i.e., not described or limited).
2. An apple (one apple).
3. A red apple (one apple of a certain definite color only).
4. A big red apple (one of a certain definite size as well as color).

Definition. — Let each pupil try to write a good definition of **adjective**. The teacher will help, and will see that the best definition is written in the notebooks.

Adjectives that Describe

EXERCISE 1. — Join to some appropriate noun each of these adjectives denoting color. (What does *appropriate* mean?)

black	green	red	blue
yellow	white	grayish	brown

EXERCISE 2. — Join to some appropriate noun each of these adjectives denoting size.

large	small	big	little
bulky	huge	great	tiny

EXERCISE 3. — Join to some appropriate noun each of these adjectives denoting shape:

long	short	thick	slender
fat	lean	tall	muscular
square	round	flat	thin
high	broad	stout	oblong

EXERCISE 4. — Join to appropriate nouns these adjectives denoting appearance:

beautiful	handsome	fair	fine
graceful	pretty	pleasing	elegant
gay	grand	clumsy	agreeable
nice	stately	magnificent	lovely
imposing	foolish	weak	ungainly

EXERCISE 5. — Join to appropriate nouns these adjectives denoting quality:

noble	strong	worthless	valuable
dull	early	proud	haughty
senseless	peaceful	bad	good
late	important	slow	swift
stupid	sweet	funny	delicate

NOTE. — Adjectives usually precede the noun; sometimes they follow it and in such case they are set off by commas.

Example: The ocean, vast and mighty, stretched before us.

Lesson 39

Adjectives that Limit

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the adjectives which tell *how many* in the sentences below:

1. I have ten fingers, two eyes, one nose, and thirty-two teeth.
2. All men must learn.
3. Several dollars were missing.
4. John found few berries.
5. Most people enjoy bathing.
6. Can you see no danger?
7. Sixteen ounces make one pound.
8. Have you caught any fish?
9. Both houses had white porches.
10. Some dogs chase deer.
11. Many days have passed.

EXERCISE 2. — Pick out the adjectives below which tell *how much*:

1. Little wheat is grown in New England.
2. The sick child should have no candy.
3. Much difficulty was encountered.
4. Have you any butter?
5. I should like some meat.
6. More haste makes less speed.
7. Croesus had most money.

EXERCISE 3. — Pick out the adjectives below which point out *which particular person or thing* is spoken of:

1. The fifth boy may recite.
2. The first answer is correct.
3. This child found that knife.
4. Saturday is the last day of the week.

5. Yonder orchard has produced these apples and those pears.
6. Another person spoke.
7. The person spoke well.

Lesson 40

Adherent Adjectives and Predicate Adjectives

The relation between an adjective and its noun can easily be pictured.

A little learning is = a dangerous thing.

The lines drawn from the end of the adjectives to the noun are meant to show that the adjective is an **adherent** of the noun. *Adherent* means *sticking to*. These lines come up under the noun to show that the adjective is **subordinate** to the noun. *Subordinate* means of lower rank or less importance.

The noun with its modifiers is called the **complete subject**. The noun without its modifiers is called the **substantive subject**.

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the complete subject in each sentence below. Pick out the substantive subject. Picture the relation of the words in these sentences.

1. The ragged urchin has found a bright new penny.
2. Two little children can pull this big wagon.
3. Many men are poor managers.
4. A good book is a precious gift.

Definition. — The use of a word in a sentence is called its **construction**. The constructions so far learned are the *subject*, the *predicate*, the *verb*, the *direct object*, the *predicate noun*; and the *adjective* modifying a noun.

Adjectives as Predicates after a Linking Verb

1. Some men are tyrants.
2. Some men are tyrannous.

QUESTIONS. — What is the construction of the noun *tyrants* in the first sentence above? What is the construction of the adjective *tyrannous* in the second sentence above? Ask yourself whether this adjective completes the predicate and whether it refers to the subject. What two parts of speech may be used as predicates?

EXERCISE 2. — Examine the predicates italicized in the sentences below, and tell which are nouns and which are adjectives:

1. A thing of beauty is a *joy* forever.
2. Anger is short *madness*.
3. These flowers are *beautiful*.
4. Little Paul became almost *spiritual*.
5. Bread is the *staff* of life.
6. William is growing *tall*.
7. The building seemed *strong*.
8. Brutus is an honorable *man*.
9. Honey tastes *sweet*.
10. The gown looks *attractive*.
11. The runner feels *strong*.
12. The whistle sounds *harsh*.

A noun after a linking verb is called a **predicate noun**. An adjective after a linking verb is called a **predicate adjective**.

TO THE TEACHER. — For further practice, see Appendix A.

Lesson 41

Learning to Distinguish Adjectives

REVIEW. — 1. Why are certain words called adjectives?

2. Why are adjectives called modifiers?
3. Where are adjectives usually placed? Before or after the noun they modify?
4. Where are predicate adjectives found?
5. Where are adherent adjectives found?
6. Why are they called *adherent*?

TEST FOR ADJECTIVES. — Adjectives go with nouns and answer the question *which*, *what sort*, or *how many*.

EXERCISE. — Turn to your last reading lesson and pick out the adjectives, using the test just given.

MODEL 1. — Three little peppers grew in a big garden.

MODEL 2. — The garden was watered each day.

1. *Three* and *little* go with the noun *peppers*. *Three* answers the question *how many*, *little* answers the question *what sort*. *Three* and *little* are therefore adjectives.

2. *A* and *big* go with the noun *garden*. *A* answers the question *how many*, and *big* answers the question *what sort*. *A* and *big* are therefore adjectives.

3. *The* goes with the noun *garden*. *The* answers the question *which garden*. *The* is therefore an adjective.

4. *Each* goes with the noun *day*. *Each* answers the question *which day*. *Each* is therefore an adjective.

Lesson 42

The Correct Use of Adjectives

It is a pleasure to hear a person talk who can use words intelligently. It is a delightful accomplishment.

Unfortunately, some people seem to have only two or three adjectives at command. Everything they approve of is either "all right" or "nice" or "fine"; or it is "lovely" or "grand." Everything they disapprove of is either "horrid" or "hateful."

These adjectives do not always fit the idea.

EXERCISE. — The adjectives in italics below are not all properly used. Correct those that should be corrected. When in doubt consult the dictionary. If you find the word *colloquial* or *colloq.* before a meaning, you will know that it is not in good use.

1. There was an *awful* storm at sea.
2. We had an *awful* good time.
3. We had a *lovely* dinner.
4. Mrs. B. is a *lovely* woman, — so beautiful and kind.
5. The fox is a *cunning* animal.
6. The baby is *cunning*. (*Cute*, often applied to babies, is not a word in good use.)
7. Lucia is just a *grand* girl.
8. There is *grand* scenery in Yosemite Valley.
9. The man is *mad*, and is confined in an asylum.
10. John is *mad* at me because I won't play with him.
11. They live in a *swell* house.
12. That dog is *ugly*; he tried to bite me.
13. The poor man's nose is so crooked that he is positively *ugly*.
14. We ought to be *healthy*; we live in a *healthful* place.
15. The dog acts *funny*. Do you think he is sick? (*Oddly* or *strangely*.)

*Lesson 43***Oral Composition: Using Adjectives to Describe**

Unless you learn to think and speak in dignified and correct English, you can never write in any but a labored and awkward way.

Speaking for two minutes, tell the class about your favorite tree, your favorite walk, or your favorite character in either history or fiction. In the description try to use good adjectives.

Before speaking in class tell a member of your family or an imaginary audience what you are going to say.

*Lesson 44***Written Composition: A Courteous Business Letter**

Let us suppose that you have received a letter of complaint from a dissatisfied customer, as follows:

175 East 54th St., New York,
July 10, 1919.

Mr. Peter Hunter,
Cloverdale, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

I wish you to know that the boxes of berries and eggs you sent me recently were quite unsatisfactory. All the big berries were on the top. Below the top layer, all were little; and half of them were green as well. Moreover, the eggs were so insecurely packed that no less than three of them were either cracked or broken.

I understand that you secure your products direct from farmers for whom you act as shipper. Nevertheless, we deal with you and must, therefore, hold you responsible for the character of the goods. I have about

decided to buy hereafter at a local store, where I can see what I buy and know what I am getting.

Yours truly,

MARY ANDERSON

(MRS. JOHN ANDERSON).

Address the lady as Mrs. John Anderson and send her a letter at once, so worded as to retain her good-will and patronage. What will you say? Will you excuse yourself? Will you offer to return her money? Read your letter to the class and get suggestions to help you.

Fold the letter and address an envelope.

Lesson 45

Dictating a Business Letter

Think how to write at once another letter to the farmer who sent you the berries and eggs. Will you try to reform him? Or will you break off business relations with him? Will you offer to share the loss, or make him bear the whole loss in case you return the money to Mrs. Anderson?

Dictate this letter to your stenographer in the presence of the class. Let the class criticize what you say.

Lesson 46

Practice in Letter Writing

Write the letter and address it as before. Read it in class to secure suggestions and help.

Lesson 47

A Letter to Father

Write to your father. Tell him about the woman's complaint. Explain what you wrote to her and to the

farmer. Ask for your father's opinion as to whether or not you did right. Read your letter to the class or write it on the board for revision.

SUGGESTIONS. — Each letter above should receive the attention of the class for several days in preparing to write, writing, revising, and copying.

Lesson 47a

Optional Lesson for Young Gardeners: Soil and Climate

Answer this letter to Tom from his cousin Jane. Write as if you were Tom. Answer Jane's questions fully, but let your letter be clear and to the point. Give the conditions of soil and climate as they are in your vicinity.

*Marysfield, N. H.,
November 20, 1920.*

My dear Tom,

I learn from Aunt Mary that you have secured some pamphlets which tell just how to make the most of a vegetable garden. Father says the soil and climate conditions are the same here as they are in your town. Please write me telling just what we can depend on in the matter of soil and climate, including rainfall, growing season, and frosts. What does the soil need in order to make things grow?

My garden is forty feet square. How large is yours? Mine was almost a failure last summer. I am ambitious to have the best garden in our town. I became very much interested in gardening when two seniors from the high school came over and talked to us about it. One of them was studying economics in the high school. He spoke to us about having home gardens to help lower the high cost of living. The more of us there are who plant

gardens next summer, the more plentiful and cheaper vegetables will be. If we can lower the price of good vegetables, we will greatly help the poor people, who can hardly afford to buy them at present. When this student had finished, I felt it was my duty to plant a garden next summer.

The other high school student was studying agriculture. He was so very enthusiastic about gardening himself that he greatly aroused the interest of his audience. This boy told us that on a small patch of ground in his back yard at home he had raised enough vegetables to supply his family and to sell some beside. This year he is going to have a vacant lot near by and has arranged to supply one of the grocery stores here in town with all sorts of garden produce. I don't want to be left behind myself, and I am beginning to think and plan already.

Yours very sincerely,

COUSIN JANE

Mr. Tom Blake,
Bolton, Mass.

CHAPTER V

PRONOUNS

Introduction

Suppose you heard a voice in the next room cry, "Me want pictures!" What can you know about the speaker? Is it a baby? Is it a foreigner? Is it a half-witted person?

In answer to the question, "Who called," why is it wrong to say, "Mary and me"?

Why is it wrong to ask, "Who did father call," and equally wrong to answer, "Fred and I"?

Is it correct to say, "William can ride with John and I"?

Tell what is incorrect in each of the following sentences, and why it is incorrect:

Each of the girls brought their knitting.

This hat is John's and that one is your's.

If you are not sure of these expressions, you should devote your attention to this chapter. Ignorance of the correct use of pronouns cannot be concealed. It is revealed in every conversation, and proves a stumbling block to the ignorant.

While you are studying pronouns, you can find time to learn how to study the spelling and use of other common words.

Lesson 48

Pronouns and Their Antecedents

See what an awkward sentence this is, and tell why it is so awkward:

If John is a good boy, John's father will take John to the circus.

This sentence is awkward because the word *John* is repeated.

If John is a good boy, *his* father will take *him* to the circus.

What word has been used instead of the noun *John*? We call such a word a **pronoun**, which means *for-noun*, or *instead-of-a-noun*. Often some word going before the pronoun, as *John* does here, tells us to whom or what the pronoun refers, and for which it stands.

EXERCISE 1. — In the sentences below, the words italicized are pronouns. Tell the noun for which each pronoun stands.

1. James has a young squirrel. *He* found *it* in a hollow tree.

2. The boys have just found *their* ball. *They* lost *it* yesterday.

3. John and Mary were not much alike, although *they* were brother and sister. *He* was lazy, as *his* teacher well knew; but *she* was at the head of *her* class.

4. One day John said, "Sister, will *you* please find *my* book for *me*? *I* can't find *it* anywhere."

Definition. — Define a **pronoun** and write the definition neatly in your notebooks.

EXERCISE 2. — In the sentences below, the pronouns are in italics. Tell how each is used in the

sentence, whether as subject, as adjective modifier, or as predicate pronoun.

1. *I* am going home.
2. *My* teacher is a good friend.
3. *It* is *I*. Be not afraid.
4. *Your* brother cannot find *us*. *Our* hiding-place in the tree escapes *him*.
5. Did *you* see *me* yesterday?
6. *We* shall all meet again in *our* garden.
7. *His* hat is in the ring. *He* threw *it* there.
8. Did Mary make these pies? Yes; *it* was *she*.
9. *They* are good; *I* should like *her* recipe.
10. *You* like *them*. *Their* success will please *her*.

EXERCISE 3. — Learn to spell these words:

ready	readiness	
busy	business	
study	studied	studying
there	their	

QUESTIONS. — 1. What happens to the *y* of ready, busy, and study when *ness* or *ed* are added?

2. Recall other words ending in *y* that change *y* to *i* when a syllable is added.

3. Where is the *y* unchanged?

4. What mistake might be made in spelling *ready*? — in spelling *busy*?

5. How many syllables in *business*? 4

6. Why are *there* and *their* sometimes confused?

7. Pronounce all these words slowly and carefully.

Write them. Use them in sentences.

Associate each word with some other word or words: thus, associate the spelling of *ready* with that of *read*; *busy* with *bus*, and *there* with *where*. Hereafter the

class will take up the spelling words with the teacher in this same way, noticing where the difficulty in spelling lies. Pronounce the words slowly and carefully; compare them or contrast them with words similarly spelled or pronounced.

DICTIONARY WORK. — The teacher will assign two words from the English literature the meaning of which must be learned by consulting a dictionary. Write sentences containing these words, so used as to illustrate their meaning.

Lesson 49

Kinds of Pronouns

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the pronouns below which ask questions:

1. Who will tell me his name?
2. Which is your hat?
3. What makes the wind blow?

NOTE. — Some words may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives.

EXERCISE 2. — Change the following words from a pronoun use to an adjective use by putting after each a noun for it to modify.

MODEL. *Few* know me now. (*Few*, a pronoun.)

Few people know me now. (*Few*, an adjective.)

1. *Some* carried shields and spears.
 2. *Many* were there, but *more* should have been.
 3. *Each* took much; but they left *more* than they took.
- Several bushels of the wheat remained.

4. *One* says, "Here are some flowers: *this* is beautiful; *that* is ugly."

5. The *other* says, "Not so; *all* are beautiful if *any* are."

6. *One* says one thing; *another, another*.
7. *Both* were brave; but the *former* was a patriot, the *latter* a traitor.
8. *Which* is your brother, and *what* is he called?
9. The *same* was never seen before.
10. *Either* could be relied on in battle, for *neither* shrank from danger.
11. *These* are industrious students; *those* are indifferent. *Several* are downright lazy.

EXERCISE 3. — Pick out the nouns and pronouns in the poem below:

THE LITTLE SANDPIPER

Across the lonely beach we flit,
One little sandpiper and I,
And fast I gather, bit by bit,
The scattered driftwood bleached and dry;
The wild waves reach their hands for it,
The wild wind raves, the tide runs high,
As up and down the beach we flit,
One little sandpiper and I.

I watch him as he skims along,
Uttering his sweet and mournful cry;
He starts not at my fitful song,
Nor flash of fluttering drapery,
He has no thought of any wrong,
He scans me with a fearless eye:
Staunch friends are we, well tried and strong,
The little sandpiper and I.

Comrade, where will you be to-night,
When the loosed storm breaks furiously?
My driftwood fire will burn so bright!
To what warm shelter can'st thou fly?

I do not fear for thee, though wroth,
 The tempest rushes through the sky;
 For are we not God's children both,
 Thou, little sandpiper, and I?

— *Celia Thaxter*

How to Learn Spelling

sep ar ate	sep ar at ing
breathe	breath ing
re cite	rec i ta tion

Difficulties in spelling arise from

- (1) Silent letters;
- (2) Obscure vowels, as where *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, are lightly uttered in unaccented syllables with almost the sound of *a*, as in *Germany*, *America*, *reality*, *error*;
- (3) Double letters;
- (4) Any spelling the sound of which might be made by another letter; as, *s* and soft *c* in *cent* and *sent*; or the sound of *ee* in *meet* and *marine*, the sound of short *i* in the first syllables of *busy*, *women*, and *pretty*.

EXERCISE 4. — 1. What are the difficulties in spelling the words above? Associate *separate* with *par* and *ate*; *breathe* with *breath* and with *bread*; *recite* with *city*.

2. What happens to final *e* in these words when a syllable is added?

3. Give other words ending in *e* and see if the same thing happens when a syllable is added.

4. Pronounce these words slowly and carefully, write them, and use them in sentences.

DICTIONARY WORK. — Two words each day, assigned from the lesson in literature.

TO THE TEACHER. — The object of inserting spelling lessons in this and the preceding lessons is to give teachers an effective method of presenting the subject. A list of common words taken from Ayr's list and others is in Appendix D. Each numbered group of five words should be a lesson in which accuracy should be demanded.

Lesson 50

Uses of Pronouns

EXERCISE 1. — Tell how each pronoun in the following sentences is used — whether as *subject*, as *object*, or as *predicate*.

1. Who has the ball?
2. I have it.
3. You must keep it.
4. What hurts John?
5. He is ill.
6. He ate green apples.
7. They are unwholesome.
8. Who is that?
9. It is she.
10. She is blindfolded.
11. Who leads her?
12. Young friends are leading her.
13. She loves them.
14. They are playing blind-man's-buff.
15. This is a good game.

EXERCISE 2. — Analyze graphically the sentences above.

Lesson 51

POSSESSIVES

Possessive Nouns and Possessive Adjectives

Review of Uses of Pronouns

EXERCISE 1. — Tell in what constructions the pronouns in the following sentences are found.

1. It is I.
2. You saw him.
3. Whom did you call?

QUESTIONS. — 1. Where is the direct object usually placed?

2. Before or after the verb?
3. Where are predicate nouns and predicate pronouns usually placed?
4. Notice the objects and predicates below and tell where they are placed.

1. *Who* is the man?
2. *What* have you?
3. *Which* is your hat?
4. *Whom* shall we ask?

5. What kind of pronouns are put before the verb when used as object or predicate? Ans. *Those which ask questions.*

6. What is the subject in the sentences above? Where is it placed?

Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives are used to denote the possessor. The possessive adjectives are *my, our, your, his, her, their, its*, and *whose*; thus, *my* father, *your* aunt, *his* hat, *our* house, *her* bonnet, *their* game, *its* hide, *whose* knife.

Possessive adjectives are often called *possessive pronouns* because they may be used instead of possessive nouns; thus, *children's* games — *their* games.

Possessive nouns like possessive adjectives are used as modifiers of nouns: thus, *father's* house, *William's* skates, the *boys'* club.

Observe the examples just given and tell what is the sign of the possessive of nouns (1) when the noun refers to one person; (2) when the noun refers to more than one.

Christ's gospel was once written *Christes gospel*; the apostrophe now takes the place of an *e* in earlier English that has since been dropped from possessive nouns.

NOTE. — The habit of using the apostrophe correctly is hard to acquire. The teacher should stress it. Much drill work is necessary.

EXERCISE 2. — Picture the relation of the words in the following sentences. Notice that in the second model sentence the possessive adjective *my* does not tell *whose office*, but it tells *whose father*; and hence *my* is there pictured as a subordinate of *father's*.

MODEL. — My father has rented → his office.

MODEL. — My father's office has been rented.

1. Your aunt's husband is my mother's brother.
2. Peter's wife's sister lay sick.
3. John's little rabbit is eating clover.
4. His old dog is watching it.

Lesson 52

Practice in the Correct Use of *Who* and *Whom*

Review Lesson 29 carefully.

EXERCISE. — *Who* is used as subject; *whom* is used as object. Put the right form in the blanks below:

1. — went?
2. — have you in the carriage?
3. — did you invite?

4. — invited her?
5. — do you like best?
6. — found my ball?
7. — is calling?
8. — has been hurt?
9. — are they chasing?
10. — will John take to the game?

Lesson 53

The Correct Use of Possessive Pronouns

Rule

Singular nouns, also plural nouns not ending in *s*, form the possessive by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the noun.

Examples: man's, men's, Jones's.

Plural nouns in *s* form the possessive by adding the apostrophe only.

Examples: dogs', boys'.

The pronoun possessive *its*, *hers*, *theirs*, *yours*, *ours*, and *his* omit the apostrophe. When a noun or name consists of more than one word the apostrophe is attached to the last word only.

Examples: William the Conqueror's army.

The Misses Smith's party.

Sears and Roebuck's business.

The king of England's reign.

N.B. — The possessive *its* must not be confused with the contraction *it's*. *It's* means *it is*.

EXERCISE. — Change to possessives the expressions beginning with *of* below and use apostrophes correctly:

MODEL. — The boat of the boys. The boys' boat.

1. The wife of my brother George.
2. The beauty of the woman.
3. The store of James and Taylor.
4. The union of carpenters.
5. The skill of the workmen.
6. The leadership of Peter the Hermit.
7. The industry of the farmer.
8. The industry of the farmers.
9. The house of James.

TO THE TEACHER. — Expand and review this exercise till the pupils' use of possessive signs is accurate and sure.

Lesson 54

Proper Adjectives

We learned in Lesson 3 that the names of particular persons, places, animals, or things are called **proper nouns** and are begun with a capital letter.

EXERCISE 1. — Tell why these nouns are begun with capitals:

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Scott | 6. Europe | 11. California |
| 2. Chicago | 7. England | 12. Pacific Ocean. |
| 3. America | 8. Sunday | 13. Wabash River |
| 4. Fido | 9. January | 14. Broadway |
| 5. Lusitania | 10. Hercules | 15. Union Pacific Ry. |

EXERCISE 2. — The adjectives formed from proper nouns are also capitalized. Tell why these adjectives are begun with capitals:

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. <i>American</i> Indian. | 4. <i>French</i> language. |
| 2. <i>English</i> people. | 5. <i>Darwinian</i> theory. |
| 3. <i>Arabian</i> steed. | 6. <i>African</i> forest. |

Lesson 55

Clearness and Accuracy in the Use of Pronouns

The only pronoun that is always written with a capital letter is the pronoun *I*.

In using pronouns be careful to make clear to whom each refers. In the second sentence below, the pronouns are not clear.

William likes Joe. He gave him a new knife.

EXERCISE 1. — See if you can make clear who gave and who received the knife by substituting a noun for one of the two pronouns.

EXERCISE 2. — Rewrite the sentence below so that the obscure pronouns in italics will be perfectly clear.

John was angry with Henry. *He* had taken *his* boat and fishing rod without permission and had broken *it* trying to land a big fish.

If the antecedent of a pronoun refers to only one, then the pronoun should refer to only one. *His* and *her* refer to only one; *their* refers to more than one.

EXERCISE 3. — Fill in these blanks:

1. Every girl had made — own dress. *Her, their.*
2. Each boy must bring — marbles. *His, their.*

Remember that the pronouns *you* and *they* always take *are* or *were*, never *is* or *was*. “*They was*” and “*you was*” are blunders made by ignorant and careless people.

Do not use the pronoun *them* for the adjective *those*. *Them* is never properly used as an adjective.

EXERCISE 4. — Insert the correct word (*them* or *those*) in the blanks below:

1. Do you see — books? I am going to send — all home tonight.
2. — fellows are always playing baseball.
3. Where did you catch — fish?
4. I caught — in the river.

Lesson 56

Obscure Pronouns Made Definite

EXERCISE. — The pronouns in italics below are used carelessly so that the meaning is obscure or the sentence is awkward. Rewrite each sentence so that the fault is corrected as in the first three. Remember that pronouns must have antecedents, and it must be clear what noun is the antecedent.

1. *Wrong:* Susie told Mary she could not go.
Corrected: Susie said to Mary, "You cannot go."
2. *Wrong:* *They* eat snails in France.
Corrected: Snails are eaten in France.
3. *Wrong:* If any one wishes to contribute to this charity, let him send *it* to me.
Corrected: If anyone wishes to contribute to this charity, let him send the money to me.
4. Father told Henry *he* must go to work.
5. *They* have no summer showers in California.
6. The wireless telegraph is such a necessity at sea that *they* are now found on every ship.
7. He gave his partner the papers, and then *he* took *his* cane and left.
8. John asked his father if *he* could help *him*.
9. James told his friend that *his* dog was lost.
10. Jane told her mother *she* was positive *she* had never been to the town *she* referred to.

11. He should not shoot little birds. Nobody does *that* here.
12. Miss Jones asked Marie to bring *her* book to class.
13. *They* have much rain in Central America, do *they* not?
14. In the magazine *it* said that the war would last another year.
15. He prevaricates, *which* is a bad fault.
16. William told his father that *his* horse had run away.
17. Running up to Johnny, *he* pulled *his* hat down over *his* eyes.
18. On that sign-board *it* says, "Don't trespass."
19. Don't *they* have sidewalks in this town?
20. She asked her mother when *her* birthday would come.
21. A good brake is important in an automobile, because *it* makes *it* easier to run *it*.
22. Andrew accompanied his father to the town where *he* was born.

Lesson 57

Oral Composition: The Photoplay

Have you seen a good moving picture show? Tell the class the story of what you saw. Be sure to tell the most important points of the story. Tell it in the fewest words possible and yet make it interesting.

To do this well you should first tell the story to some friend or to some member of the family.

1. Try to avoid too many *and's*, *why's*, or *well's*.
2. Avoid the verb *is* with subjects that mean more than one.
3. Avoid *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, and *them* as subject and as predicate. Use *I*, *he*, *she*, *we*, and *they* instead.
4. Avoid *lay*, *set* and *raise* when you mean *lie*, *sit*, or *rise*.
5. Avoid *them* when you mean *those*.
6. Avoid slang.
7. Use pronouns carefully.

*Lesson 57a***What I Plan to Raise***Optional for Young Gardeners*

Make an outline of the things which, according to the literature you obtained, will grow best in your garden, considering the soil and climate. Tell what plants you will actually grow, and how you can secure the greatest possible yield on your particular ground. Study your pamphlets carefully in making the outline.

Oral Composition

With the outline in hand, talk to the class, telling them just what your plans are. If you first make this talk at home, it will help you. Let the class discuss and criticize.

Pay special attention to your use of pronouns. Avoid all slang in your speech. Do not constantly repeat such words as *and*.

CHAPTER VI

ADVERBS

Introduction

The young person who fails to correct his faulty habits of speech may sometime have cause to regret it. His opportunities in life may be seriously affected by the neglect. Some time ago a young man who had no sense of the correct use of adverbs applied to the writer for a position as teacher of commercial subjects and coach.

"How did you get on with the athletics at ——?" I asked.

"Pretty good," he replied. "We didn't have no gymnasium for basket ball, and the football team was some green; but we won most all our games."

In this sentence the young man had made no less than four serious errors. If he were to teach, some of his pupils would be likely to adopt these mistakes. Others would ridicule them. It was impossible to think of employing the young man as a teacher. As a salesman in a city store, he would have been equally impossible.

What four errors did he make?

Lesson 58

Adverbs that Tell How and When

An adjective is used with a noun to tell *which*, of *what sort*, *how much*, or *how many* the noun indicates.

An adverb is used with a verb to tell *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, or *to what extent* the verb's statement is true. Thus, in the sentence

You can write *well*,
can write is the verb, and *well* tells *how* you can write.

Adverbs that Tell How and in What Manner

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the adverbs below:

1. Birds sing sweetly.
2. He stands uneasily.
3. She speaks faintly.
4. A good king rules vigorously.
5. The honest man speaks the truth frankly.
6. He writes thus.
7. He holds his pencil so.
8. Frank skates well.

In the sentence,

I saw him yesterday,
the verb is *saw*, and the adverb *yesterday* tells *when*
I saw him.

Adverbs are not always put next to the verb; sometimes they precede the subject, and sometimes they follow the direct object; thus,

1. *Suddenly* we heard an explosion.
2. The building caught fire *immediately*.

EXERCISE 2. — Pick out the adverbs that tell *when* in the sentences below.

1. We must go home soon.
2. John has lately made a boat.
3. Often we play baseball.
4. Should friends ever quarrel?

5. Presently he called my name.
6. Wild ducks are now flying.
7. James recently graduated.
8. She would never try again.
9. We played dominoes first; next we played checkers.
10. He defeated me often.
11. To-day I could scarcely move.
12. You must come down immediately.
13. I shall try again.
14. Afterwards the boy did better.
15. He has already gone.
16. Sometimes Mr. B. visits us.
17. Formerly my sister helped me; now I help her.
18. To-morrow my friend is coming.
19. Then we shall have a good time.
20. She will come early and stay late.

Lesson 59

Adverbs that Tell Where and How Much

In the sentence,

The battle was fought here,

the verb is *was fought*, and *here* tells the *place where* the battle was fought. *Here* is an *adverb* that answers the question *where*.

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the adverbs below which tell *where* the verb's statement is true:

1. I went there yesterday.
2. He lives yonder.
3. Westward the star of empire takes its flight.
4. The men searched everywhere.
5. They found the lost child nowhere.
6. He looked back.
7. The sailors go below.

8. This gallant company marched forth.
9. Hither we came.
10. Let me go hence.
11. We look before and after.
12. Must you walk behind?
13. We came to New York, and thence we went to Boston.
14. First he stood near.
15. Then he went away.
16. Somewhere the sun is shining.

In the sentence,

We love him much,

the verb is *love*, and the *adverb much* tells how much we love him. Adverbs also tell to *what extent* an assertion is true; thus,

1. He will *not* return.
2. He will *certainly* return.

EXERCISE 2. — Pick out the adverbs below which tell how much or to what extent.

1. The soldier was twice wounded.
2. Once he was much hurt.
3. He worked more than I.
4. He did not enjoy himself less.
5. The boys are learning their grammar thoroughly.
6. The man was little hurt, but he was annoyed exceedingly.
7. The house is almost completed.
8. It will be quite finished to-morrow.
9. The workman has been slightly injured.
10. He has not fully recovered.
11. The merchant will undoubtedly sell some cloth.
12. He must surely have returned.
13. Truly he is a brave man.

14. Probably we shall find him there.

15. Perhaps the fish will bite to-day.

TO THE TEACHER. — *Not* was originally *no-whit*. Such adverbs of degree as *not*, *surely*, *truly*, *certainly*, and *perhaps* often seem to modify other elements than the verb in the sentence; as for example, "Harry cannot go; *perhaps* John can go." Here *perhaps* may be construed quite as much with the noun *John* as with the verb *can go*. In the sentence, "*Surely* he has made a mistake," the adverb cannot be construed as an adjunct of *has made* alone; it goes rather with the whole statement, *he has made a mistake*.

Lesson 60

Adverbs Modifying Adjectives and Adverbs

Notice the use of the adverb *wonderfully* in these sentences:

1. She plays the piano wonderfully.
2. She plays the piano wonderfully well.
3. She is a wonderfully skillful pianist.

In the first sentence the adverb *wonderfully* goes with the verb *plays*; it tells how she plays.

In the second sentence the adverb *wonderfully* goes with the adverb *well*; it tells how well she plays.

In the third sentence the adverb *wonderfully* goes with the adjective *skillful*; it tells how skillful a pianist she is.

QUESTION. — What besides verbs can adverbs modify? *Ans.* Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

The adverbs *very*, *too*, and *extremely* never modify verbs; they always modify adjectives or adverbs; thus, *very good*, *too good*, *extremely good*; *very well*, *too well*, *extremely well*. It is incorrect to say, *I am very pleased*. It should be, *I am very much pleased*.

Graphic Analysis

It is easy to picture the relation of adverbs to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

This, very, little, girl has been quite, badly frightened.

Here the adjective *this* is shown to be a modifier of the noun *girl*; the adverb *very* modifies the adjective *little*; the adjective *little* modifies the noun *girl*, which is the subject; *has been frightened* is shown to be the verb; the adverb *badly* modifies the verb *frightened*; and the adverb *quite* modifies the adverb *badly*.

EXERCISE. — Picture the relation of the words in the sentences below and give an oral explanation of each as above. To show the subordinate relation of a modifier, draw a connecting line from the end of the modifier up under the word it modifies, as in the models below.

MODEL. — Far off, we saw → a, sail.

MODEL. — They came much too soon.

1. We found a thoroughly competent guide.
2. He was a much more intelligent man.
3. John had known him very slightly.
4. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
5. He came rather late.
6. Just now I learned the truth.
7. Only here can we find an opportunity.
8. The horse goes far too slowly.
9. You must not sing so loudly.
10. How beautiful is the garden!

Lesson 61

Particular Adverbs

The words *yes* and *no* in answers, also *ay*, *yea*, and *nay* are regarded as adverbs, though they are not used to modify other words.

The adverb *there* is often used to anticipate the subject when the subject follows the verb. When spoken, this anticipatory adverb is without emphasis and without grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence. If spoken with emphasis, the adverb *there* loses its meaningless anticipatory use and means *in that place*.

There was once a great flood. (*There* (emphatic) = in that place.)

There was once a great flood. (Anticipatory *there*.)

The anticipatory adverb *there* is called an **expletive** because it fills up the place of the subject but has no other relation to the sentence.

Some adverbs are used to ask questions. These are called **interrogative adverbs**.

EXERCISE. — Make a list of the adverbs that ask questions in the interrogative sentences below:

1. Where is your brother?
2. Why has he gone?
3. When will he return?
4. How far is it to Fores?
5. How do you reach the place?

Lesson 62

Adjectives for Adverbs

It is a bad blunder to use an adjective for an adverb. Remember what each can modify.

EXERCISE. — Supply the proper form below from the words given, the first word of which is an adjective, the second, an adverb.

1. Good, well. Harry is a — reader and he writes —.
2. Near, nearly. We were — our journey's end, and I had not — finished my story.
3. Easy, easily. It looks —, but it is not so — done.
4. Sweet, sweetly. Marie looked — and she sang very — too.
5. Easier, more easily. This is an — lesson than that; at least I can learn it —.
6. Sure, surely. Has Harry come? Ans. —.
7. Gentle, gently. We should deal — with such unfortunate children.
8. Beautiful, beautifully. Grace can paint —.
9. Slow, slowly. He walks too — for me. He is — at everything.
10. Careful, carefully. We walked very — on the ice, being — not to fall.
11. Some, somewhat. The invalid is — better to-day.

Lesson 63

Correct Use of Special Adjectives

CAUTION. — Never use the adverbs *there* and *here* after *that*, *this*, *these*, and *those*. It is unnecessary and awkward.

EXERCISE. — *a.* Write two sentences in which the adjective *this* is used to refer to something you have on your desk.

b. Write two sentences in which the adjective *that* is used to refer to something on the teacher's desk.

c. Write two sentences in which the adjective *these* is used of things carried in your pocket or worn as a part of your clothing.

d. Write two sentences in which the adjective *those* is used of things you can see from the schoolroom window.

Lesson 64

Correct Use of *Don't*

Never use *don't* unless the words *do not* could also be used. *He don't* is always incorrect, because we should not say *He do not*. *He doesn't* is correct.

EXERCISE. — Rewrite these sentences, turning them into good oral English by supplying contractions that are proper in conversation. Afterward write them out in full as they would appear in dignified writing.

Bad English. 1. She don't go to school.

Bad English. 2. It don't matter.

Bad English. 3. There ain't any ink in my desk.

Bad English. 4. I shan't tell anybody.

Bad English. 5. Henry don't like me.

Bad English. 6. Did you find 'em?

DRILL. — Turn to Appendix B, Chart VII of Habit-forming Drills.

Lesson 65

Correct Position of Special Adverbs

The words *only*, *not*, *almost*, and *even* should be placed so that they modify the right word.

EXERCISE 1. — Correct the errors below:

1. *Wrong:* You only need two dollars.

Correct: You need only two dollars, *or* two dollars only.

2. *Wrong:* All the cherries have not been picked.
Correct: Not all the cherries have been picked.
3. *Wrong:* I can't even find one pencil. I almost had a dozen.
Correct: I can't find even one pencil. I had almost a dozen.
4. The woman only had eggs for sale.
5. All the cake was not eaten.
6. He cannot answer one of the questions.
7. She almost found exactly what she wanted.
8. Will doesn't even know the rudiments of the game.

CAUTION. — Do not use *sooner* for *rather*, *kind of* for *somewhat* or *rather*, *no good* for *worthless*, and *seldom ever* for *seldom if ever*.

EXERCISE 2. — Use correctly the expressions below:

1. Sooner, rather. I came back — than I expected. I would — have stayed.
2. Kind of, rather. This — goods is — expensive.
3. No good, worthless. — can come of it. The fellow is positively —.
4. Seldom if ever. I have — seen such a charming spot.

Avoid the double negative; i.e., *not* with *no*, *nothing*, *nobody*, *never*. Remember that *don't* is a contraction of *do not*, and *won't* is a contraction of *will not*.

EXERCISE 3. — Pick out all the negatives in the conversation below. Rewrite it; correct the errors.

John. Is there good fishing here?

The man. I see fellers fishin' every day. I don't never see nobody ketchin' nothin'.

John. Do you let them fish, or do you tell them it's of no use?

The man. I don't never tell nobody nothin', never no more.

Lesson 66

Oral Composition

Tell a story of not more than 250 words. Let this be a story containing an episode or event which you have heard your father, mother, or some other member of the family tell. Give your story a title.

Tell it in this order:

1. *The opening situation.* This gives us the characters, the time and place of the story, and what is going on.
2. *The episode itself,* which tells what happens to the characters and works to a climax of interest.
3. *What results from the episode.*

Read the model below.

THE BOARDERS AND THE ROAST

When John was in college, he boarded for a time with a widow who enjoyed poor health. She was fond of dieting, and liked to talk to her three vigorous young boarders about the advantages of plain living and high thinking. She said that too many people "dig their graves with their teeth." She would gladly have put all three of them permanently on her favorite diet of toast and tea.

Once when their appetites had been well whetted for some time on thin soup, stale bread, fish balls, and occasional chicken wings and stews, the good woman went to the city, leaving her maid in charge of the noonday meal. The blundering maid put a whole roast on the table — a roast which was meant to be served hot for dinner, cold for supper, hashed for breakfast, and stewed with dumplings for a final meal. Too late the hungry men learned of this plan from the maid. They had converted four meals into one and had even forgotten to leave a bite for the maid.

When the landlady returned late that afternoon and found only a plate of bare bones in the refrigerator, her distress knew no bounds. So sure was she that the young men had ruined their digestions that she took occasion to diet them at once. She looked anxiously into their faces as they sighed and sat down to a supper of toast and tea.

1. Find the opening situation. Does it contain the characters? The time and place? What is "going on" in the opening situation? Why are the widow's health and her fondness for dieting mentioned in the opening situation? Why are the boarders described as young and vigorous in the opening situation?

2. Find the main episode. Tell what it is.

3. Find the result.

Before you tell your own story make a little plan of it, following this model. See if the class can pick out the three essential parts of your story when you have told it.

TO THE TEACHER. — Before the stories are told have the students put on the board a list of blunders to be avoided. Let them watch to see whether any errors are made by the story tellers, and, after each story is told, make suggestions and corrections to help in the writing.

Lesson 66a

Oral Composition: Preparing the Seed Bed

Optional for Young Gardeners

Study your literature on gardening. Make a plot of the proposed garden. Locate your rows of plants by lines and name the kind in each row. Just how will you prepare the seed bed? Will you use plow, spade, or rake? Will you use ashes, manure, lime, or other fertilizers? Why?

Oral Composition

Make an outline of a talk that will answer these questions, and in a three-minute speech tell the class about it. Remember to prepare for the class work by first telling your ideas at home. Get as much criticism as possible on your manner of presentation.

Lesson 67

Writing a Story

Write the story you told to the class.

Suggested subjects: —

1. An Adventure with a Wild Animal.
2. A Fishing Adventure.
3. An Accident.
4. An Amusing Episode.
5. A Skating Adventure.
6. An Adventure with Thieves.
7. Almost a Fatality.
8. Fighting Fire.
9. Learning to Swim.
10. Trapping.

Lesson 67a

Written Composition: Preparing the Seed Bed

Optional for Young Gardeners

Using your outline, write a theme on preparing the seed bed in your garden. Prepare this for your local city paper. Let the teacher or class select the best theme and submit it to the editor. Many people will be grateful for just such information as your theme should contain. In your writing follow closely the instructions in this chapter as to correct usage of adverbs and modifiers.

CHAPTER VII

THE SENTENCE: HOW PART IS RELATED TO PART

Introduction

Can you detect the error in this sentence:

Every one of the pupils who come here are living within the school district.

The reason many mistakes are made in the agreement of verb and subject is that the speaker or writer is not trained to see quickly just which word is the substantive subject. In this chapter you will get training to enable you to do this. You will also have practice in determining whether a substantive that follows the verb is a predicate or object of the verb. Thus you will avoid the mistake of saying, "It was *him*," instead of "It was *he*"; or of saying, "Did you see *Mary* and *I*?" instead of "*Mary* and *me*."

Can you distinguish any difference of meaning between *a* and *b* in the pairs of sentences below?

1. *a.* Come, harness me the old gray horse.
b. Come, harness me, the old gray horse.
2. *a.* Fortune made me, a favorite of the king.
b. Fortune made me a favorite of the king.

If you do see a difference, you will realize the need of learning to use commas correctly.

Lesson 68

Tests for Subject, Direct Object, and Predicate Noun

The word *analysis* is used in grammar to mean the separating of sentences into their parts as subject, predicate, etc., and naming each part.

1. Test for the Substantive Subject of a Verb. — The subject of a verb answers the question *who* or *what* before the verb.

Example: When it met an automobile for the first time, the horse that my cousin Harry drives actually ran away with him.

QUESTION. — What ran away? *Ans.* The horse. The subject of the verb *ran* is *horse*.

EXERCISE 1. — Find a subject for each verb in the passage below. The verbs are in italics. In poetry the subject often follows the verb, when in prose the verb would follow the subject.

1. And his heart within him *fluttered*,
2. *Trembled* like the leaves above him,
3. Like the birch-leaf *palpitated*
4. As the deer *came* down the pathway.
5. Then upon one knee uprising,
6. Hiawatha *aimed* an arrow;
7. Scarce a twig *moved* with his motion,
8. Scarce a leaf *was stirred* or *rustled*,
9. But the wary roebuck *started*,
10. *Stamped* with all his hoofs together,
11. *Listened* with one foot uplifted,
12. *Leaped* as if to meet the arrow.
13. Like a wasp it *buzzed* and *stung* him!
14. Dead he *lay* there in the forest

15. By the ford across the river;
16. *Beat* his timid heart no longer.
17. But the heart of Hiawatha
18. *Throbb'd* and *shouted* and *exulted*,
19. As he *bore* the red deer homeward,
20. And Iagoo and Nokomis.
21. *Hailed* his coming with applauses.

2. Test for the Direct Object of a Verb. — The object of a verb answers the question *whom* or *what* after a verb, and does not indicate the same person or thing as the subject.

Example: Tommy found in the woods a mile from home a robin which had broken its wing.

QUESTIONS. — Tommy found *what*? *Ans.* A robin.

Does *robin* indicate the same person or thing as Tommy? *Ans.* No. Then *robin* is the object of the verb *found*.

EXERCISE 2. — What is the object of *aimed* in the 6th sentence above? Of *stung* in the 13th? Of *bore* in the 19th? Of *hailed* in the 21st?

3. Test for the Predicate Noun. — The predicate noun answers the question *who* or *what* after the verb and refers to the subject.

Example: John became that same year, in spite of his enemies, the president of his class.

QUESTIONS. — John became *what*? *Ans.* The *president* of his class.

Does *president* refer to the same person as *John*, the subject? *Ans.* Yes. Then *president* is the predicate noun.

Predicate adjectives may be found in the same way.

EXERCISE 3. — Asking yourself the proper questions, test the subjects and verbs in *italics* below to find predicate nouns and predicate adjectives with them:

THE GHOSTS

1. From their aspects and their garments
2. Strangers *seemed they* in the village;
3. Very pale and haggard *were they*,
4. As they sat there sad and silent,
5. Trembling, cowering with the shadows.
6. *Was it* wind above the smoke-flue
7. Muttering down into the wigwam?
8. *Was it* the owl, the Koko-Koho,
9. Hooting from the dismal forest?
10. Sure a voice said in the silence:
11. "*These are* corpses clad in garments
12. *These are* ghosts that come to haunt you."

Lesson 69

Practice in Analyzing

EXERCISE. — Picture the relations in these sentences below:

1. Knowledge is power.
2. John made the boat quite easily.
3. These four carpenters have just completed our house.
4. Was not Daniel Webster a great orator?
5. Benedict Arnold proved a most miserable traitor.
6. The old sexton rang the bell very slowly.
7. The wanderer found no rest.
8. Who carried my ball away?
9. Every rose has its thorn.
10. Are you studying geometry now?
11. The early bird catches the worm.

12. Kit Carson always remained a hunter.
13. Earnest boys become wise men.
14. Complements complete the predicate.
15. Does this hot pie taste delicious?
16. A dainty plant is the ivy green. (This sentence is inverted. *Ivy* is the subject.)
17. Happy is the contented man.
18. Our acts our angels are. (How would you say this? What does it mean?)
19. There have been few melodies so sweet.
20. My sister's friend is visiting us.
21. A man's house has always been considered his castle.

Lesson 70

The Secondary Object

Certain verbs take two objects; thus,

The people made William king.

In this sentence the two words, *made king* are together equal to the one idea *crowned*. The action of the verb is not complete till the word *king* is added; for *made* in the sense either of *created* or of *compelled* is very different in meaning from *made king*. The word *king* also describes or gives an attribute of the direct object *William* by showing what he became as the result of the action of the verb. We call a word used as *king* is here, a secondary object. Its relation to the sentence may be pictured thus,

The people made → William king.




As a part of the predicate the secondary object is underlined like the verb and the object complement;

since it helps the verb to express action, it is connected with it by a line.

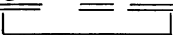
A predicate adjective as well as a noun can fill this position; thus,

Mother kept the dinner hot.*



The verb *teach* sometimes takes a secondary object.

Father taught → me French.



EXERCISE 1. — Picture the relation of the words in the following sentences, then analyze each orally:

1. The boys elected Harry captain.
2. The principal appointed me monitor.
3. The farmer will paint his barn red.
4. Such reproof made the pupil very much ashamed.
5. Grief made the woman's hair gray.
6. The fellows call me Bill.
7. Surprise held us speechless.

EXERCISE 2. — With the following verbs compose six sentences telling facts about men in history: *made*, *considered*, *called*, *elected*, *chose*, *believed*. Let each of these sentences have a secondary object.

QUERY. — Where does the secondary object usually come in the sentence? Before or after the verb? Before or after the direct object?

Definition. — With the teacher's help let the class write definitions of **secondary object**. Write the best definition in your notebooks.

* Called an accusative adjunct,

Lesson 71

The Indirect Object

EXERCISE 1. — Write three sentences containing secondary objects.

The secondary object must not be confused with a direct object when the direct object is preceded by an indirect object.

Which sentence below has a secondary object?

1. Father made me a carpenter.
2. Father made me a kite.

The second sentence means, "Father made a kite for me." Here *kite* is the direct object, and *me* is the indirect object; i.e., the person or thing indirectly affected by the action of *making*.

The *indirect object* can always be preceded by *to* or *for*; and if it follows the direct object, *to* or *for* must be used; thus,

The boy gave *us* a bouquet.

The boy gave a bouquet *to us*.

Graphic Analysis

The relation of the indirect object to the verb may be pictured by inclosing it in parentheses (), inserting a caret (^) before it to indicate the omitted word (*to* or *for*), and connecting it as a modifier of the verb.

MODELS. — The teacher told (^ us) a story.

Old Mother Hubbard got (^ her poor dog)
a bone.

Definition. — Develop a good definition for the *indirect object* and write it in your notebooks.

EXERCISE 2. — Picture the relations in the following sentences and give the analysis orally. Next rewrite the sentences, putting the indirect object after the direct.

1. He wrote me a letter.
2. We must pay the men their wages.
3. My friend has promised me her picture.
4. Santa Claus brought each little boy a drum.
5. Will brother not make me a sling?
6. Father has just bought you a Japanese doll.
7. George did not tell me a lie.

Lesson 72

How to Punctuate Nouns Used Together

A noun may precede another noun and modify it like an adjective; thus, *a railway train*. *Railway* tells what kind of a *train*.

A noun may be placed after another noun to explain the first. It is then separated from the first noun by a comma; thus, *The American poet, Longfellow*. The second noun is called an **appositive**.

Two nouns may be placed together (1) when one is the indirect object and the other the direct object; and (2) when one noun is a secondary object.

1. *Indirect object*: We gave the *horse* oats.
2. *Secondary object*: Good books make boys *students*.

When *and* is omitted between two nouns they are separated by a comma; thus,

Apples, peaches, pears, plums were ripening in the garden.

EXERCISE. — *a*. Name five different ways in which two nouns may be used together.

b. Which two of the five require commas?

c. Write an example of each use in the order given above and punctuate the sentences correctly.

Word Study: May and Can

Can I go? = Am I able to go?

May I go? = Is it permitted me to go?

In asking permission use *may*, not *can*.

Lesson 73

Review of Adverbs

EXERCISE 1. — Tell why the ending *ly* is necessary on the italicized words below:

1. John has worked *steadily* all winter.
2. The man acts *queerly*. Is he intoxicated?
3. You should think *seriously* about the future.
4. *Surely* you can find them, if you try.

Do not use *most* for *almost*, or *some* for *somewhat*.

Somewhat is an adverb; *some* is not an adverb.

Almost means *nearly*; *most* never means *nearly*.

EXERCISE 2. — Use *most* and *almost* correctly in the blanks of the first six sentences below. Use *some* and *somewhat* in the others. Give reasons for your choice in each sentence.

1. We are — through the woods.
2. The book was — interesting.
3. — of the inhabitants are engaged in agriculture.
4. The house is — completed.
5. — every one was present.
6. I had — finished my work when you came.
7. Mother has been ill for — time; but she is — better today.
8. — hills were — higher than others.

Lesson 74

Newspaper Work: An Interview

Once more you are to become men and women of affairs. This time you are to go into the newspaper business. See if you cannot write such good articles that the best of them can be printed or typewritten, bound, and left in the school for classes to read and enjoy in years to come.

Your newspaper (let us call it *The Skyrocket*) will eventually contain the best articles written by the class under these headings:

1. A biographical sketch of some well-known man or woman in your community.
2. A description of some interesting house, farm, view, or public building in your community.
3. A news item of interest.
4. Report of a game, public work, a new piece of machinery.
5. An interview with some well-known person with your questions and his answers on some subject of general interest.

There are several occasions when the newspaper will desire to get the facts of some man's or woman's life for print as a biographical sketch.

1. When a newcomer, especially a person of importance, enters business or professional life in the community.
2. When a man enters public service or becomes a candidate for office.
3. When a prominent citizen passes away, or leaves the town to go into business elsewhere.
4. When a man distinguishes himself and becomes noted as a writer, speaker, inventor, philanthropist, statesman, etc.

Get the material for a brief biographical sketch by inquiry either from the individual of whose life you will write or from his immediate family. A few persons you could interview are noted below. In choosing follow, if possible, the suggestions as to newspaper methods given above.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Father. | 6. Postmaster. |
| 2. Grandfather. | 7. Congressman. |
| 3. Uncle or other member
of your family. | 8. Member of legislature. |
| 4. Teacher or principal. | 9. President of school board. |
| 5. Clergyman. | 10. Any famous or well-known
person in the neighbor-
hood. |

Examine the facts that you have collected, to see if there is any unifying element running through them. Are the person's success and achievements due to some one great life-interest, as in the case of Luther Burbank?

Is he distinguished for some single quality of mind or character? If so, state in your first sentence what this keynote of his life is.

Is the man's life remarkable for the variety of his interests and achievements? If so, state this in the first sentence.

Is the life you are sketching remarkable for the difficulties and handicaps which had to be overcome? If so, state this fact.

If, on the other hand, your hero's life is plain and uneventful, like that of most men, say so in your first sentence.

Thus your biographical sketch will have that most valuable quality of good writing, *unity*. Let the most important event come toward the last. Thus your

sketch will have another valuable literary quality — *climactic arrangement*. A good sketch should grow in interest from first to last.

After this preliminary work on your material, tell the story to the editor-in-chief, your teacher, and receive further suggestions before writing it. A common way in the newspaper business is to telephone to the office news items and sketches of the sort you are preparing. Some ingenious boy might set up a dummy telephone in the room for the use of reporters.

Lesson 75

A Biographical Sketch

Write your biographical sketch. Read it aloud to yourself or to some member of your family; then submit it to classmates for final criticism and revision.

MODEL. — For model biographical sketches look in *Who's Who in America*, in the "Who's Who" column of the *Saturday Evening Post*, or find a short sketch in any encyclopedia.

MY FATHER'S LIFE

My father is one of those men who succeeds not because of his luck, but in spite of it. He came to this country with his parents at the age of ten. Left an orphan at fourteen, he worked on a farm for his board and clothes till he was eighteen. He then walked fifty miles to the city of Chicago, and, arriving there without a cent, passed three days without food while looking for work. At last he secured a job in a shoe factory, and here he was employed for three years. During this time he joined the Methodist Church. He went to school evenings. In the night school he studied English and commercial branches.

He saved his money. At twenty-one he had eight hundred dollars. This sum he invested in a shoe firm which advertised for a manager with capital. As soon as the concern had my father's money it failed, leaving him again penniless, without work, and with a young wife to support; for he had recently married. Fortune had taken his money, but he still had grit and energy. It could not rob him of his education, nor of his knowledge of shoes. He secured a position as salesman in the shoe department of a large store, where he became head of the department. At present he is proprietor of a shoe store of his own. He was born in Norway in 1866.

Lesson 76

A Cheery Letter to a Sick Classmate

Is there not some pupil in your school who is ill at home and would be delighted to get a cheery letter from you telling the school news? Talk the matter over in class and make an outline of the news. Next review the parts of a letter. When the letters have all been written, let the class decide which they will prefer to send to the absent schoolmate.

Lesson 76a

Fighting Garden Enemies

Optional for Young Gardeners

Answer this letter as if you were the Tom addressed by his Cousin Jane. Before writing, study your literature on the subject of gardens.

Marysfield, N.H.

April 15, 1920.

Dear Tom,

Last year my garden was almost a total failure. The bugs stripped the leaves off my potatoes; green worms

ruined my cauliflower; the grubs ate off much of my corn before it ever came up; and, finally, little striped bugs devoured my cucumbers soon after they came up. That was not all; so many weeds grew among the onions and carrots that neither of these came to full size. I want you to send me all the information you have that can help me to avoid these enemies. I expect some plants to be up in a few days. What shall I do to get rid of the bugs and worms? Do you suppose they will come again this year?

Yours very sincerely,
COUSIN JANE.

CHAPTER VIII

KINDS OF SENTENCES

Introduction

In the groups of sentences below, distinguish any differences that you notice in those that are worded alike. What are the differences? What causes these differences?

1. *a.* You have been waiting.
b. You have been waiting?
c. You have been waiting!
2. *a.* Indians eat grasshoppers.
b. Indians eat grasshoppers?
c. Indians eat grasshoppers!
3. *a.* Oh, I have a headache.
b. Oh, I have a headache?
c. Oh! I have a headache!
4. *a.* Boys come here.
b. Boys, come here.

Punctuation is as important to make your meaning clear as are words themselves. You should study carefully this chapter in order to acquire skill in punctuating sentences. Thus your written thoughts may be given something of the same feeling and effectiveness that you give to your spoken thoughts

*Lesson 77***Declarative and Interrogative: Affirmative and Negative**

A sentence that makes a statement is called a **declarative** sentence. It is followed by a period.

Chalk is white.

You **did** not close the door.

A sentence that asks a question is called an **interrogative** sentence. It is followed by an interrogation point.

Is chalk always white?

Did you not close the door?

EXERCISE 1. — Change these declarative sentences to interrogative. Insert the auxiliary *do* or *did* when needed. Punctuate correctly.

1. Lambs play.
2. Bees make honey.
3. The soldiers captured a city.
4. John laughed.
5. The boat has not capsized.
6. There has been a high wind.
7. The box was of gold.
8. The child is not hurt.
9. No one came.
10. Nothing remains.

A sentence that affirms something as true is called an **affirmative** sentence.

The birds fly.

The boys shouted.

Fred has cut his finger.

A sentence that denies the truth of a statement is called a **negative** sentence.

The birds do not fly.
The boys did not shout.
Fred has not cut his finger.

EXERCISE 2. — Change these affirmative sentences to negative. Insert the auxiliary *do* or *did* when needed.

1. You are lucky.
2. The fish bite.
3. John saw a squirrel.
4. We shall have dinner now.
5. I like to play baseball.
6. Jane found a ripe strawberry.
7. Mary went home.
8. They can see us.
9. He is a funny fellow.
10. He falls down.

Lesson 78

Imperative Sentences and Nominatives of Address

The Latin word *impero* means *I command*. Sentences which command are called **imperative** sentences. In order to command a person, one must address him; for unless he hears or reads what he is bidden to do, the command is useless.

The pronoun *you* (old forms *thou* and *ye*) is used in addressing a person; *you* will therefore be used as the subject of imperative sentences. Since there can be no confusion as to the subject of an imperative sentence, the subject is usually omitted. *Halt!* means, *Halt you!* *Come here,* means *Come you here.* When the subject of an imperative verb is expressed, it properly follows the verb; thus,

Enter *thou* into the joy of thy Lord.

A word of address must not be confused with the subject of an imperative sentence.

Boys, come here.

In this sentence *you* (understood) is the subject. *Boys* is used to call the attention of the persons addressed. It is called a nominative of address; and the fact that it is not grammatically related to the rest of the sentence is shown by the comma which sets it off from the rest of the sentence. Omit the comma, and *Boys* becomes the subject of a declarative sentence; thus,

Boys come here.

EXERCISE. — *a.* Write three interrogative sentences each containing a nominative of address.

b. Write three declarative sentences each containing a nominative of address.

c. Write two imperative sentences each containing a nominative of address; two imperative sentences with subjects expressed and two without subjects expressed.

Definition. — Let each pupil endeavor to define a nominative of address. Copy the best definition in your notebooks.

Lesson 79

Exclamatory Sentences and Interjections

The Latin word *exclamo* means *I cry out*. The adjective *exclamatory* is applied to those sentences which persons cry out when they are excited, startled, or filled with emotion of any kind. Such sentences are called **exclamatory** sentences; and the emotion with which

they are uttered is indicated by placing an exclamation point (!) after them.

Oh, how lovely this rose is!

What a sad blow her father's death must have been!

Such sentences are often accompanied by words known as **interjections**, a word from the Latin, meaning *thrown in among*, so called because they are thrown in among the words of a sentence without any grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence. *Oh* is an example of an interjection.

EXERCISE 1. — In the sentences below all the interjections are in italics. Make a list of them.

1. *Oh* for a breath of summer!
2. *Oh*, what a fall was there, my countrymen!
3. *Oh!* What a noise he is making! (*What* is an adjective here.)
4. I know not, *alas*, what made them do it!
5. *Ah*, I have sighed to rest me!
6. *Pshaw!* I have broken the vase!
7. *Why*, how strange this seems!
8. *Well, well!* I can't understand how that could happen!

Imperative sentences are frequently exclamatory, if the command is uttered sharply or with emotion.

"Halt!" "Oh, go away!"

A sentence in the form of a declarative sentence may become exclamatory if uttered with emotion. The sentence, *Father has come!* followed by the exclamation point, would indicate joy or surprise. The interjection *O* is used with vocatives only. It should always be written as a capital letter; thus, Thou, O Lord; O thou pale moon.

EXERCISE 2. — Punctuate correctly the sentences below, and after each write what kind of sentence it is: whether declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.

1. Bring me the book
2. Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you
3. How cold it is
4. Oh, what a funny story
5. Strike with all your might boys while the iron is hot
6. How beautiful is the sea
7. When can their glory fade
8. Tell me about your journey
9. A living dog is better than a dead lion
10. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon that bank
11. What a goodly outside falsehood hath
12. A crooked stick will cast a crooked shadow
13. You must come home at once
14. Come home at once
15. My credit, alas, is gone
16. Well, honor is the subject of my story
17. Pshaw! the cows are out

Lesson 80

Review

QUESTIONS. — 1. What two objects may follow the verb *give*?

2. What two objects may follow the verb *call*?

3. What two objects may follow the verb *tell*? The verb *choose*?

4. How does the direct object differ from the indirect?

5. How does the secondary object differ from the predicate noun?

6. How do you tell a nominative of address from a subject?

7. What sort of sentences most often contain interjections?

8. Develop definitions for indirect object, secondary object, nominative of address, interjection, declarative sentence, exclamatory sentence, interrogative sentence. Give a sentence to illustrate each and punctuate it correctly.

Definitions. — With your teacher's help write definitions for **interjection** and also for each of the four kinds of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. Copy the definitions, with a sentence to illustrate each, neatly into your notebook.

Lesson 81

Graphic Analysis

EXERCISE. — Analyze graphically the sentences below. The natural order of words is not followed in sentences 4, 6, 8, 14, and 16.

MODEL 1. Come here, my little one.

MODEL 2. John was made = captain yesterday.

3. The careless boy has just now broken a window.
4. How very tall the girl is growing! (The predicate adjective is here put first for emphasis.)
5. The village master taught his little school.
6. A new commandment give I.
7. There have been several visitors here to-day.

8. Blessed are the poor in heart.
9. William bent the stick straight again.
10. That good lady gave the poor little girl a new cloak.
11. My brother's wife has been quite seriously ill.
12. Oh! I consider him a brave man, sir!
13. Did you call him a coward?
14. Him the Almighty hurled headlong.
15. The Puritans made Miles Standish captain.
16. Right valiantly fought the royal forces.

Lesson 82

Oral and Written Analysis

EXERCISE 1. — Write out the analysis of the first four sentences in Lesson 81.

EXERCISE 2. — Give orally the analysis of the sentences from the fifth to the last.

Lesson 83

Proper and Improper Verb-phrases

There are some seeming idioms used by the careless and ignorant that are not really good English.

Bad English. He can't seem to understand.

Good English. He seems unable to understand.

Bad English. They couldn't seem to see us.

Good English. They seemed unable to see us.

Bad English. He had ought to have spoken.

Good English. He ought to have spoken.

Bad English. He would liked to have gone.

Good English. He would have liked to go.

Bad English. I should liked to have seen him.

Good English. I should have liked to see him.

Bad English. If you had have tried, you would have succeeded.

Good English. If you had tried, you would have succeeded.

EXERCISE. — Write sentences of your own in which each of the following appears:

would rather

have to (meaning *must*)

had as well

ought to have come

had as lief

would have liked

Lesson 84

Use of Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences are especially useful in writing about exciting events.

EXERCISE 1. — Notice this passage from the race in *Hans Brinker, or the Silver Skates*. Try to read the passage aloud so as to show the excitement in the exclamatory sentences.

Mynheer van Gleck drops the handkerchief this time.
The buglers give a vigorous blast!

The boys have started.

Halfway already! Did you ever see the like!

Three hundred legs flash by in an instant! But there are only twenty boys. No matter, there were hundreds of legs, I am sure! Where are they now? There is such a noise one gets bewildered. What are the people laughing at? Oh, at that fat boy in the rear. See him go! See him! I wonder if he knows he is all alone. Yes, he knows it. He stops! He wipes his hot face. He takes off his cap and looks about him. Better to give up with a good grace. He has made a hundred friends by that hearty, astonished laugh. Good Jacob Post!

EXERCISE 2. — Read the following sentences so as to show the difference in meaning which the punctuation

at the close of each gives. Tell what circumstances might occasion the difference in punctuation.

1. a. Father has come.
b. Father has come?
c. Father has come!
2. a. He has made his will.
b. He has made his will?
c. He has made his will!

Lesson 85

Rhetorical Questions

The interrogative sentence is sometimes used where no answer is expected. It is then a more forceful way of expressing a thought than when the same thought is stated in a declarative sentence. For instance, when Marullus, who opposes Caesar, sees the people rejoicing at the triumph of Caesar over Pompey's sons, Shakespeare has him use interrogative sentences in speaking to a crowd of people on the street:

And do you now put on your best attire?
And do you now cull out a holiday?
And do you now strew flowers in his way
That comes in triumph over Pompey's blood?
Be gone!

EXERCISE. — Change the above interrogative sentences to declarative by changing the relative positions of *do* and *you*; notice how much weaker the statement is. The feeling of indignation is less noticeable.

Lesson 86

Composition: A Thriller

Suppose that you are now an eye witness of some exciting race or game. You are telling what occurs just

as it happens, to some one who is unable to see. Write what you would say. Use the four kinds of sentences, declarative, imperative, exclamatory, and interrogative. Let the subjects below suggest a theme.

1. An Exciting Horse Race at the Fair.
 2. A Chariot Race at the Circus.
 3. A Foot Race.
 4. A Sack Race.
 5. A Boat Race.
 6. A Foot Ball Game.
 7. Reproduction of the Chariot Race from *Ben Hur*.
- (The teacher may read this to the class.)

Lesson 87

Punctuation and Revision

Examine the punctuation of your theme. Do periods follow the declarative sentences? Do interrogation points follow the interrogative sentences? Do exclamation points follow the exclamatory sentences?

If you have introduced interjections, put commas after them, unless you wish the interjection to stand alone, separated from the rest by a pause. In that case use an exclamation point.

Comma. Oh, what a funny fellow he is!

Exclamation point. Oh! He has fallen!

When the themes are read aloud the pupils should watch to see if any errors in speech are made, so that they may help the writer to correct them.

See if the words below suggest errors to be avoided and good rules to follow. What do they suggest?

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Baby. | 9. Good. |
| 2. And, so, why. | 10. Contractions. |

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| 3. I, we, he, she, they. | 11. Only. |
| 4. Lay, set, raise. | 12. Rather. |
| 5. Are, were. | 13. Worthless. |
| 6. Awful. | 14. Almost, somewhat. |
| 7. Who, whom. | 15. Double negative. |
| 8. Each and every. | |

CHAPTER IX

A GRAMMATICAL REVIEW AND DESCRIPTIVE WRITING

Introduction

This chapter affords an opportunity for the class to review much of what has thus far been learned. Knowledge is useful only when it is so well learned that it can be used when needed. Frequent reviews strengthen the memory and add to the usefulness of knowledge.

There are a number of lessons in this chapter designed to give the student the means of testing his practical knowledge of English. Thus he may become an alert proof-reader, capable of discovering errors in his own and his classmates' themes. The business ability tests, given by hundreds of business firms the country over to applicants for office positions, quite generally call for just this type of ability.

Finally, Chapter IX will give the student an opportunity of learning how to write better descriptions.

Lesson 88

Types of Sentences

Below are six different types of sentences. Note carefully of what each type consists.

1. *a.* Come.
- b.* Come home at once.

2. *a.* She laughed.
b. The fat man laughed heartily.
3. *a.* Roosevelt became president.
b. The strenuous reformer seemed very popular.
4. *a.* Boys like games.
b. Healthy boys like them very much.
5. *a.* Circumstances made William king.
b. We have always considered you happy. (*Happy* is an accusative adjunct.)
6. *a.* Father gave the man the money.
b. She has just made us some bread.

Lesson 89

Constructing Sentence Types

EXERCISE. — Make the following sentences.

1. One sentence with no subject expressed.
2. One with subject and verb only, the subject being a noun.
3. One with subject and verb only, the subject being a pronoun.
4. One with subject, verb, and predicate noun.
5. One with subject, verb, and predicate adjective.
6. One with subject, verb, and direct object.
7. One with subject, verb, direct object, and secondary object.
8. The same as 7, but with an adjective as accusative adjunct instead of the secondary object.
9. A sentence with subject, verb, and indirect object.

Lesson 90

Uses of the Parts of Speech: Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs

EXERCISE. — The pupil should learn to reproduce this outline of constructions and parts of speech learned thus far, with an example for each.

I. Nouns are used as

1. *Subject*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
2. *Direct Object*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
3. *Indirect Object*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
4. *Predicate Noun*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
5. *Secondary Object*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
6. *Appositive*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
7. *Adjective*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
8. *Adverb*. Example: John ran a *mile*.

II. Pronouns are used as

1. *Subject*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
2. *Direct Object*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
3. *Indirect Object*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
4. *Predicate Pronoun*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

III. Verbs are used as predicate, singly or in verb phrases.

Lesson 91

Uses of the Parts of Speech: Adjectives, Adverbs

Review the several uses learned thus far of nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

EXERCISE. — Learn to reproduce this outline of the uses of adjectives, adverbs, and interjections.

I. Adjectives are used as

1. *Modifiers of nouns* (adherent adjectives). (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)
2. *Modifiers of pronouns* (adherent adjectives). (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

3. *Predicate adjectives*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

4. *Accusative adjuncts*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

II. Adverbs are used as

1. *Modifiers of verbs*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

2. *Modifiers of adjectives*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

3. *Modifiers of adverbs*. (Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

III. Interjections are used independently.

(Example to be supplied by the pupil.)

QUESTIONS. — 1. What is the anticipatory adverb?

2. Why is it called an expletive?

Lesson 92

Blunders in Speech Corrected — A Review

EXERCISE 1. — Correct these sentences and tell why each word in italics is wrong:

1. *Bad English*. *Whom* is it? It is *me*.
2. *Bad English*. Mary can sing *good*.
3. *Bad English*. Henry has *got* a loose tooth. (*Got* means obtained.)
4. *Bad English*. Miss Smith, please *can* I leave the room?
5. *Bad English*. Let us *set* down a few minutes and rest.
6. *Bad English*. *Who* are you calling?
7. *Bad English*. *Me* and Bill are chums.
8. *Bad English*. We were not *near* finished when you came.
9. *Bad English*. *Ain't* it fun! (*Ain't* means *are not*.)

10. *Bad English.* I got my arithmetic lesson easy.
11. *Bad English.* Eat slow, my child.
12. *Bad English.* He doesn't drink no tea.

EXERCISE 2. — Use the correct form below.

Don't, doesn't

1. John — like olives.
2. — you like them?
3. Yes, and I can't understand why he —.
4. They — agree with him.
5. She — seem to understand.

Aren't, isn't

6. Tom — able to find your books.
2. — it because you — looking for them.
8. — this John coming toward the door?
9. It — fair to quit.

Lesson 93

How to Describe Effectively

Get material for the class paper. Let it be a description of some interesting building, farm, or view to be seen in the vicinity of your home. Tell first what is most noticeable in the scene or picture as a whole; afterward fill in the details as they would catch the eye of the spectator.

If it is a building, describe it from various points of view: tell how it looks from a distance, how on a nearer view, how it appears on entering. Give its general shape, color, and size before you take up the details. In order to locate what you want to describe, use such expressions as "on the right," "on the left," "in the foreground," "in the rear," "in front," "in the background." Tell both what it is not like and what it

resembles. Choose adjectives that give just the effect you want to give.

Subjects for description:

the school house	a factory
the courthouse	panoramic view from a
a church	high place
the city hall	a farm
the public library	

The best subject for description is one familiar to the writer but not to the rest of the class.

It adds to the interest of a description if you can introduce into it a story element as in the model below, in which what is done by the visitors gives action, feeling, and reality to the description.

A LOG HOUSE

Toward evening we came upon a log farmhouse, nestling in a hollow between two hills. Its interest was greatly increased by the fact that it was evidently occupied. In many parts of the country log cabins are to be seen, but they are usually deserted; their chimneys are idly crumbling, and their roofs are falling to decay. But here was a log house whose chimney had a wreath of smoke above it. Not a crack showed between the well-plastered logs, and the roof of home-made shingles looked square and tight.

We entered the garden by a rude gate set in a still ruder fence of rails. Before the door were phlox, asters, and nasturtiums. To the left a patch of old-fashioned hollyhocks and sunflowers partly hid the vegetable garden. A cow grazed at the right.

We knocked to ask for a glass of milk. While the young girl was getting it, we peeped in. We saw one room only, with a ladder at the right leading to the loft. There was a

bit of rag carpet on the floor, a candle on the center table, a fine big fireplace at the left end of the room and — O joy! a kettle hung from the crane above it! We had suddenly been transplanted to a pioneer home of a hundred years ago.

Lesson 94

Oral Composition: Description

Give your description orally to the class. Try to make them see what you are describing. If the scene is familiar, see if they can guess what it is without your telling them.

You will make this easier for them if you avoid complicated sentences and give your description clearly and simply.

Lesson 95

Written Composition: Description

Write out your description. Look carefully to the punctuation. Let it be read and criticized by some member of the class.

Lesson 96

Interchanging Parts of Speech by Use

It has been said that any part of speech may be used as any other part of speech. This is not altogether true, since many blunders arise from attempting to use an adjective as an adverb or a noun as a verb.

Some words, however, may be used now as adjectives, now as adverbs.

Where is the word *better* used as an adverb in the sentences at the top of Page 123? Explain. As an adjective? Explain. Note how *more* is used in sentence 2.

1. A *better* kite than this would fly *better*.
2. *More* men could do the work *more* rapidly.

Many words may be used interchangeably as either noun or verb.

EXERCISE. — Tell whether the words italicized below are nouns or verbs:

1. The boys *fish* in the river.
2. Blind *fish* are often found in dark caverns.
3. We can *play* in the barn if it rains.
4. Life is not all *play*.
5. *Talk* is cheap.
6. *Talk* less and do more.
7. *Honor* thy father and thy mother, in the days of thy youth.
8. We should give him *honor*.
9. The *walk* is very pleasant.
10. We shall *walk* along the river.
11. Dogs *bark*.
12. His *bark* is worse than his bite.
13. He gave him a *whip* with which he might *whip* the horse.
14. My friend *rides* a good horse.
15. We had many enjoyable *rides* through the woods.
16. We *work* all day.
17. The *work* is hard.

Lesson 97

Interchanging Parts of Speech by Change of Ending or Accent

Adjectives are generally made to form adverbs by adding *-ly*; thus, adjective, *beautiful*; adverb, *beautifully*.

EXERCISE 1. — Form adverbs from these adjectives and use each adverb in a sentence:

nice	awkward	strange	sure
fair	serious	easy	certain

Many nouns are made to form verbs by changing the accent; thus, noun, *rec'ord*; verb, *record'*.

EXERCISE 2. — Change these nouns to verbs and use each in a sentence:

in'crease	es'cort	trans'fer	ex'tract
con'trast	es'say	prod'uce	con'test
ac'cent	in'sult	reb'el	
con'vict	tor'ment	con'duct	

Lesson 98

Practice in the Correct Use of the Verb *Get*

REVIEW EXERCISE 1. — Correct these sentences and tell why they are incorrect:

Incorrect. You come quick.

Incorrect. I sure did.

Incorrect. Does Jenny play good on the piano?

Incorrect. She plays quite nice, I think.

Incorrect. She sings beautiful.

There are some improper uses of the verb *get* which the careful speaker avoids.

1. **Gotten** is always incorrect.

2. **Got** should be omitted after *has*, *have*, or *had* when used to express possession.

I have got a knife, means *I have secured a knife*. *I have a knife*, means *I possess a knife*.

3. **Got** should not be used to mean *must*.

It is incorrect to say *I have got to learn my lessons*. Say rather, *I must learn my lessons*, or *I have to learn my lessons*.

NOTE. — Turn to Appendix B Charts X and XV for drill work.

4. **Get** should not be used for *become*.

She got angry, should be *She became angry*.

EXERCISE 2. — Correct the examples of bad English below:

1. *Bad English.* She has got brown hair.
2. *Bad English.* I did not get to go to the circus this year.
3. *Bad English.* Mary has got to go home.

Lesson 99

The Correct Use of Compound Pronouns

Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, themselves are properly used either as appositives or as objects of verbs.

Do not use these compound pronouns instead of personal pronouns. It is quite common for young people to start a theme like this, "One day John, Mary, and myself went fishing." This is improper; what should the writer say?

EXERCISE. — Fill the blanks correctly below.

I, me, myself

1. My friends and — had a good time
2. They went with — for a boat ride.
3. Did you see John and — rowing?

He, him, himself

4. I found the old man alone, talking to —.
5. There was no one there but — (*but* is here a preposition, and takes the form *him* rather than *he*.)
6. His wife and — had been working.

Lesson 100

How Verse is Written

You should have some verses in *The Skyrocket*, your school paper, to add further zest and interest.

Here is a model to examine.

HAY DAYS

There are such jolly games to play
 Vacation mornings in the hay:
 We're pirates first in hayfield caves,
 A-hiding underneath the waves.

More often we pretend to be
 Out swimming in a stormy sea;
 And where the hay is raked up high,
 There is a billow rolling by:

We raise our heads to let it pass,
 Almost forgetting that 'tis grass.
 How very, very funny though,
 That ocean spray can tickle so!

—Emily Rose Burt.

QUESTIONS. — 1. How is the first letter in each line written?

2. How many beats in a line?

3. The accented words and syllables make the beats; thus,

There are' / such jol' / ly games' / to play'

See if every line resembles this one.

4. Divide each line into four parts with two syllables in each. These parts are called *feet*.

5. Which syllable is accented — the first or the second?
6. Where do the rhyming syllables come?
7. How many lines to each stanza?
8. How many pairs of rhyming syllables?

Lesson 101

Practice in Writing Verse

EXERCISE. — Either imitate the poem above or select one from Longfellow, Whittier, Pope, Poe, or Riley to imitate.

Be sure that your *feet* are regular and your rhymes are correct.

Choose some very simple subject about which to write — humorous if possible, like,

The Troubles of a Fisherman
Hallowe'en Pranks
Christmas at Home
A School Episode
One Fourth of July
A Winter Day
In Autumn Time

CHAPTER X

PHRASES

Introduction

In order to write well you must learn different ways of expressing the same idea. If you can express an idea in a word, a *phrase*, or a sentence, you can choose the expression that will give your idea the right importance and the right clearness, and will also make it sound the best. You must learn at once how to turn a single word into a phrase, and a phrase into a single word. In this chapter you will learn what phrases are and how to use them.

It is right to say, "*In front of the house.*" Is it also correct to say, "*In back of the house*"?

It is right to say, "He will tell *of* the battle." Is it proper to say, "I do not remember *of* it"?

It is right to say, "Mary went *to* church." Is it also correct to say, "Mary stayed *to* home"?

Many vexing problems like these may be settled by the study of phrases.

Lesson 102

Word Groups with the Force of a Single Word

In sentences there are often found groups of words called *phrases*. They have the effect of a single word.

Examples: Ships *of great size*; *large ships*.

Thus the phrase *of great size* is equivalent to the single word *large*. Such groups of words are not sentences, since they contain no subject and predicate. They cannot express a thought by themselves; but they play so important a part in sentences that a clear understanding of them is necessary.

EXERCISE 1. — Below are a number of phrases used to modify nouns; find a single adjective that can take the place of each.

MODEL. — A youth *without a beard*; a *beardless* youth.

1. Men of wealth.
2. A bank of earth.
3. A wanderer without a home.
4. The people of England.
5. A loss to the nation.
6. A person without reason.
7. A stone of no worth.

EXERCISE 2. — Rewrite these sentences, substituting for each phrase italicized an equivalent adverb:

MODEL. — The messenger hurried on *with speed*;
The messenger hurried *swiftly* on.

1. I cannot go *at this time*.
2. *At that time* I could have gone.
3. *For what reason* did you ask?
4. He will, *in all likelihood*, return soon.
5. Will you remain *in this place* long?
6. They walked home *with slow steps*.
7. She treats her friend *in a cruel way*.
8. *In what way* can I reach the place?
9. The train will leave *in a short time*.
10. Harry cast a bitter acorn *from him*.
11. *In this way*, then, he has secured the advantage.

Lesson 103

Using Phrases in Sentences

EXERCISE. — Write sentences, each containing one or more of the following phrases:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Above him | 17. From my father |
| 2. Across the river | 18. Of Washington |
| 3. At home | 19. On the shore |
| 4. After that | 20. Over the fence |
| 5. Along the shore | 21. Past them |
| 6. Before me | 22. Since yesterday |
| 7. Among the trees | 23. Through the snow |
| 8. Between two aged oaks | 24. Till next week |
| 9. Beneath the sky | 25. To the post-office |
| 10. Behind the house | 26. Under our feet |
| 11. Into the water | 27. Up the tree |
| 12. Out of difficulty | 28. With a gun and a dog |
| 13. Below the meadow | 29. Without a dollar |
| 14. By the gate | 30. Aboard the ship |
| 15. Down hill | 31. About you and me |
| 16. For him and us | |

Lesson 104

Analysis of Phrases

Let us examine some phrases and note their parts and use.

1. John caught a string of fish in the river.

Here we have two phrases — *of fish*, an adjective phrase modifying *string*; and *in the river*, an adverbial phrase modifying *caught* — telling where John caught the fish.

In the phrase *of fish*, *fish* is the principal word. The word *of* because it is placed before the principal word is known as a preposition. The preposition is used to

connect the principal word to the word modified, and to show the relation between them. The principal word is generally called the *object of the preposition*.

In the phrase *in the river*, *river* is seen to be the principal word; *the* is an adjective modifying *river*; and *in* is the preposition.

The adverb phrase is not always closely joined with the verb; for this reason it is often difficult to identify adverb phrases, and all the more so because the same phrase may now be adverbial, now adjectival in use.

2. The fish in the river are bass and perch.

Here the phrase *in the river* tells which fish and modifies the noun *fish*. In the first sentence above, the same phrase *in the river* tells where they *were caught* and so modifies the verb *caught*.

THOUGHT TEST. — In which sentence is the phrase *in the river* an adverbial phrase? In which is it an adjectival phrase?

EXERCISE 1. — Pick out the prepositions and the principal words in the phrases of the story in Lesson 66.

EXERCISE 2. — Pick out the phrases in the following sentences. Notice whether they modify nouns, verbs, or adjectives. Which are adjective phrases, which adverb phrases?

1. This knife is good for nothing. I cannot cut with it.
2. The roses by the garden wall will bloom in the spring.
3. A friend of mine told the news to me.
4. At three o'clock school was dismissed without delay.
5. The minutemen of Lexington were drawn up on the green.

NOTE. — For further practice turn to the sentences in Appendix A.

Lesson 105

Graphic Analysis of Phrases

Definition. — With the help of the teacher let every pupil endeavor to write good definitions for the notebooks of **preposition**, **object of a preposition** and **prepositional phrase**; choose the best to copy into your notebooks.

It is easy to picture the relation which a phrase bears to the word it modifies. Put a parenthesis around the phrase and subordinate it by an adjunct line to the word it modifies; thus,

After us will come the deluge.

(After us) will come the deluge.

The Connecticut charter was hidden in an oak tree.

The Connecticut charter was hidden (in an oak tree.)

EXERCISE. — Picture the relation of words in the following sentences, and tell which phrases are adjective and which are adverb in their use. Put a parenthesis around each phrase and connect it to the word it modifies.

1. The sailors must go aboard their ship.
2. A house of great size stood near the river.
3. Traces of the wreck were seen along the shore.
4. The dog ran around the house.
5. Before nine o'clock we must take the train to Chicago.
6. Cannon were thundering before the city.
7. Shall we gather at the river?
8. The children stayed with their grandparents during the vacation.
9. In the hall stood an old-fashioned clock.

10. The cow jumped over the moon.
11. Mary went to school.
12. She went with us.

Lesson 106

Special Uses of Prepositional Phrases

EXERCISE 1.—Learn to reproduce these nine special uses of a *prepositional* phrase:

1. A prepositional phrase may be used as an *adjective modifier* to modify the object of a preposition.

In the top of a tree at the edge of the wood a crow had built her nest.

(In the top) (of a tree) (at the edge) (of the wood) a crow had built her nest.

2. *More than one* prepositional phrase *may modify the same word*.

The car fell with a crash from the elevated track to the street below.

The car fell (with a crash) (from the elevated track) (to the street below).

3. A prepositional phrase may *modify an adjective*.

The fellow is good for nothing.

The fellow is good (for nothing).

EXERCISE 2.—Pick out the phrases that modify adjectives below:

1. The mother is proud of her son.
2. San Francisco, famous for its harbor, is on the Pacific Coast.
3. The teacher was kind to me always.
4. I am sorry for him.

4. Prepositions may follow adverbs, in which case they are to be regarded either as *modified by the adverb* or forming with it a *phrasal preposition*.

The child crawled *out from under* the bed.

EXERCISE 3. — Use these phrasal prepositions in sentences:

on board
in place of
instead of

with regard to
out of

Adverbs occasionally modify prepositions. The adverb *just* modifies the preposition *before*, in the sentence below.

(Just before the battle), mother, I am thinking most of you.

QUESTION. — What does the phrase, *Just before the battle*, modify?

5. An adverb occasionally *modifies a phrase* as a whole rather than any single word of it; thus,

The excited man was *quite* without reason. *Quite* modifies *without reason*.

This ax is to be used *only* in case of fire. *Only* modifies *in case of fire*.

6. A prepositional phrase may be used as *attribute complement* like a predicate adjective.

This stone is *of no worth*. This stone is *worthless*.
This stone is = (of no worth).

This idea is without *sense*. This idea is *senseless*.
This idea is = (without sense).

7. A prepositional phrase may be used as *subject*.

Out of sight is out of mind. (Out of sight) is out of mind.

8. A prepositional phrase may be used as the *object* of a preposition.

I came from *over the river*. I came (from over-the-river).

In a few idiomatic phrases, prepositions are followed by adjectives (*on high*), adverbs (*at once*), or prepositions (stand *from under*).

9. A prepositional phrase may be used to *modify* no particular element in the sentence, but rather *the whole statement*. We have found that the adverbs *certainly*, *perhaps*, *indeed*, etc., modify the whole statement.

The owl, *for all his feathers*, was a-cold.

Yes, *spite of all*, some shape of beauty moves away the pall.

Without doubt he is his own worst enemy.

Lesson 107

Uses of Phrases Discriminated

Review the special uses of prepositional phrases in Lesson 106.

EXERCISE. — Tell how each phrase is used in the sentences below:

1. This is the little girl from over the way.
2. Over the fence is out of bounds.
3. We shall go to the little brown church in the valley.
4. The man was in a great rage.
5. California is famous for its scenery.
6. In times of peace a nation should prepare for war.
7. With all my worldly wealth I thee endow.
8. The men from the mountains will prove a match for the men of the plains.
9. A man is a man for all that.

10. The Romans with a loud shout threw javelins from the higher position down upon the heads of the enemy.

11. We were sorry for him on account of his misfortunes.

12. The boys can skate on the mill pond near home at the foot of the hill.

13. Instead of bread will he give him a stone?

14. At once the warriors raise on high the banners of their king.

Lesson 108

Peculiar Uses of Prepositions

EXERCISE 1. — Use these words as prepositions in sentences:

saving

notwithstanding,

during

but (in the sense of except)

Be sure you have a noun or pronoun after each.

Example: All *but* one man came *during* the night *notwithstanding* the danger.

These adjectives may be used as prepositions: *like*, *near*, *next*.

EXERCISE 2. — Use these adjectives as prepositions: *like*, *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*, *next*.

Prepositions standing without an object are often used to modify a verb; in such cases, they are *adverbs* and not prepositions.

EXERCISE 3. — Tell which of the words in italics below are adverbs and which are prepositions:

1. We came *in*.
2. We found no one *in* the house.
3. We looked *around*.
4. We saw no faces *around* us.
5. The boatman rowed us *across*.

6. He rowed us *across* the harbor.
7. The child fell *off* the ladder.
8. He fell *off* on the grass.
9. We walked *up* Main Street and *down* the boulevard.
10. We walked *up* and *down* for a long time.
11. The fox ran *along* beside the road.
12. It ran *along* the road.
13. The steep rocks were *above*, the stream *below*.
14. *Above* us were steep rocks; *below* us, the stream.
15. Who passed *by* on the other side?
16. Some friends passed *by* the place.

EXERCISE 4. — Use the following words in sentences as adverbs; then use the same words as prepositions:

above	behind	near	since
after	between	off	through
about	beyond	on	under
before	by	around	up

Lesson 109

Recognizing Phrases

EXERCISE. — Take your Reader or Literature and, in the last lesson you have read in class, find as many phrases as you can. Write them down in a list, putting the letter *p* over the prepositions and the letter *o* over the objects of prepositions.

Review the definitions of *phrase*, *prepositions*, *object* of preposition.

Lesson 110

Correct Use of Prepositions

1. Do not use the preposition *of* for the verb *have*, after *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, or *should*.

Bad English. I could of gone. I may of gone, might of gone, must of gone, should of gone.

Good English. I could have gone. I may have gone, might have gone, must have gone, should have gone.

2. The word **up** is used after several verbs to make idioms; *to make up one's mind*, *to break up housekeeping*, *to give up*, meaning to give in or quit.

Often *up* is properly used to mean *completely*; as, *to use up*, *to burn up*, *to eat up*, *to dry up*.

Show up (appear) and *size up* (judge) are not in good use.

Up should not be used when it adds nothing to the thought. It is not needed after *divide*, *finish*, *end*, *rest*, *open*, etc.

EXERCISE. — Omit the word *up* when used heedlessly or incorrectly in the sentences below. Rewrite the sentences.

1. As soon as he shows up here, he will size up (learn) the situation.

2. When we have all rested up, we will open up the box of peaches, and divide them up among us.

3. The football players were scratched up and crippled up when they finished up playing; but the game ended up with the score in our favor.

Do not use the preposition **on** after the verb *plan*.

Bad English. We plan on going to-morrow.

Good English. We plan to go to-morrow.

Do not use the preposition **of** after the verb *remember*.

Bad English. Do you remember of my saying that?

Good English. Do you remember my saying that?

Do not use the preposition **like** for the conjunction *as* or *as if*.

A preposition should never introduce a verb and its subject. Only a conjunction can do this.

Bad English. It looks like it would rain.

Good English. It looks as if it would rain.

Bad English. I felt like I had done enough.

Good English. I felt as if I had done enough.

Bad English. He ran like the rest did.

Good English. He ran like the rest (*or as* the rest did).

Lesson 111

Correct Use of Prepositions

Some persons are careless in the use of prepositions. They say "to home" for *at home*; "inside of two days" for *within two days*; "different to" or "different than" for *different from*; "no use in" for *no use of*; or they put in prepositions where none are needed, as when they say "follow after" for *follow*.

We are judged by our speech. Your place in the world hereafter will partly depend upon your success in learning to use good grammar now.

EXERCISE. — Correct these examples of bad grammar:

1. (At, to) Is your mother — home?
2. (Within, inside of) He will be here — ten minutes.
3. (Outside of, except) There is no one — John that believes it.
4. (To, than, from) This story is quite different — that.
5. (Of, in) There is no use — my trying.
6. (After) His dog followed — him all day long.

1. **Into** is used when there is motion from a place without to a place within.

Bad English. We left the porch and went in the house.

Good English. We left the porch and went into the house.

2. There is no authority for **onto**; use **upon** instead.

Bad English. We came out onto the lawn.

Good English. We came out upon the lawn.

3. Speak of being **angry with** a person, of being angry **at** a thing.

Bad English. He is angry at me.

Good English. He is angry with me.

Good English. He is angry at that speech of mine.

4. The phrasal preposition **in front of** is correct; but **in back of** for **behind** is not in good use.

Bad English. There is a garden in back of the house.

Good English. There is a garden behind the house.

5. The preposition **of** is not needed after **off**.

Bad English. Take the plate off of the table.

Good English. Take the plate off the table.

Lesson 112

Practice in the Use of Prepositions

EXERCISE. — Insert the proper words in the blanks below.

Like, as if

1. The baby looks — its mother.

2. It looks — its mother neglected it.

3. The wind blew — a hurricane.

4. It blew — a tornado had struck us.

5. The fish bit — they wanted to be caught.

At, to

6. Is John — home?
7. No he is — Cortland to-day.
8. Will he be — school to-morrow?
9. Yes! if he doesn't have to go — the physician's.

Within, inside, in, into

10. Go — the house, Mary.
11. — an hour mother will be here.
12. When I came — the barn, I found the horse — his stall.

13. He stood — the door and peeped out.

Of, in, outside, except, than, from

14. Don't try to explain. There is no use — it.
15. There is no use — explaining to any one — mother.
16. She is different — most people and better — most people too.

Lesson 113

Reporting a News Item

You are again reporting for *The Skyrocket*. Get material for a news item. What fresh news can you report? Anything of sufficient interest to warrant telling at the dinner table is interesting enough for the paper.

Is some boy making a boat or a sled? Is some girl making a dress or a hat? Who has met with a mishap? Who has achieved something, or met with unexpected good fortune? Can you report the recent school examination? The school entertainment?

Make a story of your theme and let the first sentence be such as to catch the reader's interest and tempt him to read on to the end. Do not write more than two

hundred words. Perhaps you can get ideas from the model below.

SKATING

No pond, river or lake in town, and yet all the young people are skating! Boys of the Fecit Club have wrought this seeming miracle. They found a big hole in the ground where the old brick yard used to be. They hitched a gas engine to the rusty pump; and lo! the big hole became a miniature lake. Jack Frost did the rest. In forty-eight hours he covered the lake with as smooth a glare as you could want.

Then the boys brought lumber from a tumble-down shed and made a tight little club house on the shore of the lake. The boys knocked together three long benches and ranged them next the wall on three sides of the room. Some one contributed a small coal-stove, and the little house was complete. It will accommodate as many as twenty skaters. Here they can come to warm themselves from time to time, and to put on or remove their skates.

Not satisfied with all this, the boys added one more attraction. Last Saturday they strung an electric wire with twenty lights from the road north of the pond to the club house on the south side. The city furnished the light *gratis*. Crowds of people came in the evening to watch the skaters. The young folks are wild with delight. It seems that half the town is learning to skate. Hurrah for the Fecit Club!

Study the paragraphing above to see if you can give a title to each of the three paragraphs.

Get your own material arranged in an orderly way, so that it can be made into two or three paragraphs.

Report your news item over the 'phone to the editor-in-chief of *The Skyrocket*. Let all the class help you with criticisms and suggestions.

Lesson 113a

Helping the Friends of Man

Read your literature on birds helpful to the farmer. What birds in your neighborhood help man? How? What do they eat? How can the birds be induced to stay near? Discuss different kinds of bird houses.

How do frogs and toads help the gardener? What can you do to encourage their presence near? Make an outline from which to speak to the class on this subject.

TO THE TEACHER. — If the school has a moving picture machine, you may wish to know that two films called "Insect Friends and Enemies" and "Enemies of the Garden" are obtainable at a nominal price from the Educational Film Corporation, 729 Seventh Ave., New York City.

Lesson 114

Writing a News Item

Now write your news article. Be careful to put into practice the rules of grammar and good English usage you have thus far learned and especially those listed below.

1. Keep in mind whether you are referring to one or more than one when you use the pronouns *his*, *her*, and *their*, and the verbs *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*.

2. Keep in mind the correct use of pronouns: *he*, *she*, *I*, *we*, *they*, and *who* as subject and predicate; *him*, *her*, *me*, *us*, *them*, and *whom* as direct object and objects of prepositions. See that the antecedent of your pronouns is clear, and use compound pronouns correctly.

3. Avoid slang and the slovenly use of such adjectives

tives as *awful*, *nice*, *pretty*, *terrible*, *lovely*, *cunning*, *grand*, and *mad*.

4. Remember that *good* modifies nouns only and *well* is the corresponding adverb which modifies verbs.

5. Use transitive verbs *set*, *lay*, and *raise* with direct objects only; *sit*, *lie*, and *rise* are intransitive and used without direct objects.

6. Watch your prepositions that you may use them neither improperly nor unnecessarily.

Lesson 114a

Birds, Frogs, and Toads as Friends of Mankind

Optional for Young Gardeners

Prepare a short article for the local paper on the subject given above. Such information will help your community. Vary your choice of words, phrases and sentences, expressing the thought so as to bring out your ideas with the greatest clearness and force. Put into practice the suggestions for good English in Lesson 114.

APPENDIX A

Supplementary Sentences for Drill Work

1. Trees grow.
2. Oceans rolled between.
3. Dame Nature decked herself with flowers.
4. Apples are ripe.
5. Bells are ringing.
6. Nellie died.
7. Cattle divide the hoof and chew the cud.
8. Beauty is everywhere.
9. A round peg will not fit a square hole.
10. Rich rugs of oriental design covered the floor.
11. He was a chief.
12. There never lived a man more kind of heart.
13. She had rings on her fingers.
14. Great bodies move slowly.
15. The dog whined.
16. His pockets bulged with marbles which rattled as he walked.
17. In the time of roses, hope thou, weary heart.
18. I have at last found you.
19. Many a mile the road will wind.
20. The mill will never grind again with the water that is past.
21. Make the world safe for democracy.
22. Where are my books?
23. Never again would he be so careless.
24. Sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing.
25. The bubble broke.
26. Deer ran down the mountain side.

27. Electricity had become the mysterious agent of man's will.

28. The guns' barrage shall cease.

29. Is it true that man was made to mourn?

30. The longest lane must have an end.

31. How the darkies shouted!

32. I cannot sing the old songs.

33. Sweet are the uses of adversity.

34. In every action reflect upon the end.

35. Just in the gate dwelt pale diseases and repining age.

36. The only things in which we can be said to have any property are our actions.

37. Our riches may be taken from us by misfortune, our reputation by malice, our friends by death; but our actions must follow us beyond the grave.

38. We ask advice, but we mean approbation.

39. How blest is he who crowns, in shades like these,
A youth of labor with an age of ease.

40. Increase of years makes men more talkative.

41. How ill white hairs become a fool and jester!

42. Boys must not have the ambitious cares of men.

43. Encourage innocent amusements.

44. Her who fairest does appear,
Crown the queen of all the year.

45. She walks in beauty like the night
Of cloudless climes and starry skies.

46. The sun should not set upon our anger.

47. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

48. To be angry at trifles is mean and foolish.

49. When you have nothing to say, say nothing.

50. By attention ideas are registered in the memory.

51. She moves a goddess, and she looks a queen.

52. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is,
To have a thankless child.

53. As the calling dignifies the man, so the man much more advances his calling.

54. Actions, looks, words, steps, form the alphabet by which you may spell characters.

55. Oh give us the man who sings at his work!

56. One is scarcely sensible to fatigue whilst he marches to music.

57. Children are travelers newly arrived in a strange country.

58. Suspicion always haunts the guilty mind.

59. The thief doth fear each bush an officer.

60. Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn.

61. Oft on a plat of rising ground,
I hear the far-off curfew sound,
Over some wide-watered shore,
Swinging slow with sullen roar.

62. The wise for cure on exercise depend.

63. God never made his work for man to mend.

64. A crowd is not company, and faces are but a gallery of pictures, where there is no love.

65. Thy better soul abhors a liar's part.

66. Much danger makes great hearts most resolute.

67. 'Tis an old maxim in the schools
That flattery's the food of fools.

68. Why does one climate and one soil endure
The blushing poppy with a crimson hue,
Yet leave the lily pale, and tinge the violet blue?

69. Conversation is the music of the mind.

70. Were we as eloquent as angels, yet would we please some men, some women, and some children much more by listening than by talking.

71. The first ingredient in conversation is truth, the next good sense, the third good humor, and the fourth wit.

72. A great deal of talent is lost in the world for want of a little courage.

73. Be wise with speed;
A fool at forty is a fool indeed.

74. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

75. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

76. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.

77. He who can at all times sacrifice pleasure to duty approaches sublimity.

78. Freedom is the wage of self-control.

79. In life can love be bought with gold?

80. Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?

81. No; all that's worth a wish, a thought,
Fair virtue gives, unbribed, unsought.

82. Howe'er it be, it seems to me
'Tis only noble to be good.

83. Kind hearts are more than coronets,
And simple faith than Norman blood.

84. Never put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day.

85. Beware of little expenses; a small leak will sink a great ship.

86. Lives of great men all remind us,
We can make our lives sublime,
And departing, leave behind us
Footprints in the sands of time.

87. Every great and commanding moment in the annals of the world is the triumph of enthusiasm.

88. Envy is a passion that always implies inferiority, wherever it resides.

89. The sweetest bird builds near the ground,
The loveliest flower springs low;
And we must stoop for happiness,
If we its worth would know.

90. True happiness, if understood,
Consists alone in doing good.
91. Evil news rides fast, while good news baits.
92. Example is the school of mankind, and they will
learn at no other.
93. People seldom improve when they have no other
model but themselves to copy after.
94. A man must often exercise, or fast, or take physic,
or be sick.
95. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part, — there all the honor lies.
96. He who receives a good turn should never forget it;
he who does one should never remember it.
97. The nightingale, their only vesper-bell,
Sang sweetly to the rose the day's farewell.
98. In Spain, it is said, the great Cervantes died of hunger.
99. The lark, the messenger of day,
Saluted in her song the morning gray.
100. Sweet is the breath of morn.

APPENDIX B

Habit-Forming Drills

The object of these drills is to correct common errors in speech by making it easier to use good English than it is to use bad. This result is attained by repetition that establishes habits of speech. If persisted in, repetition will gain for the correct expressions a place in the mind that will result in habitual and unconscious use. The principle of repetition at increasing intervals adds to the effectiveness of the drill. In order to make the mental impression vivid while the drill is in process, the teacher should demand (1) that the pupils sit up straight, (2) that they show the *greatest possible speed of utterance*, (3) that every pupil is in the game as the class repeats aloud in concert.

It is well to have charts of the drills made in large black letters to be hung before the class during practice. A good way to drill by these charts is something like the following: Give Chart I three times a day for the first week, twice a day for the second, and once a day for the third; after that omit it for a week, then give it; next omit it for a month and give it; then review it at the close of the term. Begin Chart II the second week and proceed as with Chart I, and so with the rest. Local conditions should govern the precise amount of drill. More drill is needed on certain charts in some localities than in others.

I

1. You are.
2. You were.
3. You aren't.
4. You weren't.
5. They are.
6. They were.
7. They aren't.
8. They weren't.

Repeat the drill, changed to question form: 1. Are you? etc.

II

1. It is I.
2. It is he.
3. It is she.
4. It is we.
5. It is they.
6. It isn't I.
7. It isn't he.
8. It isn't she.
9. It isn't we.
10. It isn't they.

Repeat the drill, changed to questions: 1. Is it I? etc.

III

1. It was I.
 2. It was he.
 3. It was she.
 4. It was we.
 5. It was they.
 6. It wasn't I.
 7. It wasn't he.
 8. It wasn't she.
 9. It wasn't we.
 10. It wasn't they.
- Change to questions:
1. Was it I? etc.

IV

1. It must be he.
2. It may be she.
3. It might be they.
4. It can't be I.
5. It couldn't be we.
6. It will be he.
7. Might it be they?
8. Can it be I?
9. Must it be they?
10. Won't it be she?
11. Will it be we?
12. Could it be they?

V

1. Each of the boys is.
2. Neither of the cities is.
3. Every one of the plants is.
4. Not one of the big oaks is.
5. Each of the children does.
6. Neither of the old men does.
7. Every one of the countries does.
8. Not one of the students does.
9. Each of the girls who are here sings.

VI

1. John writes well.
2. He can't read well.
3. Can he draw well?
4. Will plays well.
5. He doesn't speak well.
6. Can he swim well?
7. Mary can sing well.
8. All act well.
9. They behave well.
10. They try to do well.
11. Everything goes well.

VII

He doesn't, she doesn't, it doesn't know.
Fred doesn't, Mary doesn't, Bob doesn't; so
I don't, you don't, we don't, they don't.
It doesn't *much matter*; the wind doesn't blow.
Doesn't he, doesn't she, doesn't it pay?
Don't I, don't you, don't we, don't they?
Doesn't it matter and doesn't it pain?
Doesn't it snow and doesn't it rain?

VIII

1. We aren't nearly done.
2. Can you follow easily?
3. Surely I can.
4. Walk more slowly.
5. Write carefully.
6. They behave badly.
7. He did that nicely.
8. Come here quickly.
9. We must work rapidly.

IX

1. I know it was they.
2. Did you know it to be them?
3. All thought it was he.
4. You thought it was she.
5. You thought him to be me.
6. Why did you think the man to be him?
7. Whom did you ask for?
8. Whom did you want?
9. Whom did he speak to?
10. Who did she think spoke?
11. Whom were you talking to?
12. Who do they say did it?

X

1. I have to work.
2. He has to study.
3. You don't have to play.
4. She has to go.
5. It has to be done.
6. We have to be there.
7. Who doesn't have to?
8. It had to be told.
9. The students have to get books.
10. Every one of them has to write themes.

XI

1. "Lie down, Buster."
2. When ordered, Buster lay down.
3. "Lay the child down."
4. She laid the child down.
5. "Lie still," said she.
6. The child lay still.
7. She laid a quilt over it.
8. "Do not lie on the damp ground."
9. "Sit up straight."
10. The pupils sat up straight.
11. "Set the dishes on the table."
12. "I will sit here."
13. "Raise your hand."
14. He raised his hand.
15. "Now rise and go."
16. He rose and went.

APPENDIX B

XII

1. I ought not to go.
(Repeat with *you, he, she, they, Mabel.*)
2. I ought not to have gone.
(Repeat with *you*, etc. as above.)
3. I would have liked to go.
(Repeat with *you*, etc. as above.)
4. I seem unable to understand.
(Repeat with *you*, etc. as above.)

XIII

1. The tongs were ready.
2. The scissors are sharp.
3. Measles are catching.
4. News is brought.
5. The gallows is gruesome.
6. Mathematics is hard.
7. Politics is (or are) exciting.
8. The data are given.
9. The alumni are visiting.

XIV

Of the two boys.

1. Will is the taller.
2. Jack is the heavier.
3. Is Will the better?
4. He is not the worse.
5. Which is the fairer?

Of three or more boys.

1. Will is the tallest.
2. Jack is the heaviest.
3. Is Will the best?
4. He is not the worst.
5. Which is the fairest?

XV

1. I haven't any money.
2. I have no money.
3. I have none.
4. He has nothing.
5. They haven't anything.
6. She has nobody.
7. Have you a knife?
8. I haven't a knife.
9. Have you anything to eat?
10. What grade have you?
11. I have an A.
12. I have no mark on my theme.

XVI

1. Between you and me.
2. With you and me.
3. For you and me.
4. From you and me.
5. By you and me.
6. To you and me.
7. Behind you and me.
8. Near you and me.
9. After you and me.
10. Without you and me.
11. Above you and me.
12. Beyond you and me.

XVII

Change *you* and *me* in XVI
to *him* and *her*.

XVIII

Change *you* and *me* in XVI
to *us* and *them*.

XIX

Change *you* and *me* in XVI
to *my friend* and *me*.

XX

1. He and I will go.
2. She and they are friendly.
3. We boys have fun.
4. Mary, Jim and I can help.
5. You and I know how.
6. Father, mother and I are here.
7. We girls are making candy.
8. The neighbors and we had a dispute.
9. They and their relatives agree.

XXI

1. We came out upon the porch.
2. He pushed John off the step.
3. Don't be angry with me.
4. I shall be at home within two days.
5. It looks as if it would rain.
6. We looked in front of the house and behind it.
7. We went into the house.
8. We searched in all the rooms.
9. It was different from what was expected.

XXII

1. What is the use of my trying?
2. By his learning a trade he is able to help.
3. We don't understand John's doing that.
4. Their wanting to ride was natural.
5. What seems strange is your being unwilling to pay.
6. Do you object to our crossing this field?
7. There is little sense in their finding fault.

XXIII

The following drill, whimsically arranged to catch attention, is worthy of careful study. It contains most of the irregular verbs that cause confusion.

A PHOTO PLAY

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. She drove back. | 19. She did a wrong. |
| 2. She wore gloves. | 20. She stole a fig. |
| 3. She rode fast. | 21. She ate it up. |
| 4. She nearly froze. | 22. She saw her sin. |
| 5. She came home. | 23. She grew pale. |
| 6. She blew the horn. | 24. She knew the worst. |
| 7. She sprang out. | 25. She became sad. |
| 8. She flew to the door. | 26. She shook her head. |
| 9. She rang the bell. | 27. She broke down. |
| 10. She ran in. | 28. She began to cry. |
| 11. She spoke up. | 29. Her eyes swam. |
| 12. She sang out. | 30. She wrung her hands. |
| 13. She drew no reply. | 31. She tore her hair. |
| 14. She sat down. | 32. She took a cup. |
| 15. She wrote a note. | 33. She drank it dry. |
| 16. She rose up. | 34. She threw herself down. |
| 17. She went out. | 35. She gave a gasp. |
| 18. She fell from grace. | 36. She lay still. |

XXIV

Change past tense above to the present and repeat.

XXV

Change past tenses in XXIII to the present perfect and repeat.

C. TEACHERS' APPENDIX

Suggested Definitions

These definitions are adapted to the language development and knowledge of the pupil at the time. They cannot, therefore, be the most perfect definitions possible to the mature scholar.

LESSON

1. *Sentence*. — A sentence is a thought expressed in words. . . . 1
2. *Grammar*. — Grammar is that branch of the language arts which teaches the forms, usages, and relationships of the words in a sentence. . . . 1
3. *Noun*. — A noun is the name of something. . . . 2
4. *Paragraph*. — A paragraph is a group of related sentences bearing upon one topic. . . . 9
5. *Verb*. — A verb is a word that asserts action, being, or possessions. . . . 13
6. *Auxiliary*. — Auxiliaries are verbs used with another verb to help express action, being, or state of being. . . . 14
7. *Irregular Verb*. — An irregular verb is a verb having a special form (not ending in *ed*) to use after the auxiliaries *has*, *have*, *had*, and *be* 15
8. *Subject*. — The subject of a sentence tells that about which something is asserted. . . . 23
9. *Predicate*. — The predicate of a sentence tells what is asserted about the subject. . . . 23
10. *Transitive Verb*. — A transitive verb is a verb that either expresses possession or indicates an act as passing over from the doer to the receiver of this act. It always takes a direct object. . . . 24
11. *Direct Object*. — The direct object of a sentence completes the predicate and names the receiver of the act. . . . 24
12. *Predicate Noun*. — A predicate noun is a noun which completes the predicate and refers to the subject. . . . 26
13. *Intransitive Verb*. — All verbs that are not transitive are called intransitive verbs. . . . 30
14. *Adjective*. — A word joined to a noun to describe it or limit its application is called an adjective. . . . 38
15. *Complete Subject*. — The noun with its modifiers is called the complete subject. . . . 40

16. *Substantive Subject*. — The subject without its modifiers is called the substantive subject: 40
17. *Construction*. — The use of a word in a sentence is called its construction. 40
18. *Pronoun*. — A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. 48
19. *Antecedent*. — The noun to which a pronoun refers or for which the pronoun stands is called its antecedent. 48
20. *Adverb*. — An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adverb, or an adjective. 62
21. *Expletive*. — The adverb *there* when it has no other use in a sentence than to anticipate the subject is called an expletive. 62
22. *Interrogative Adverb*. — An adverb that asks a question is called an interrogative adverb. 62
23. *Complete Predicate*. — The predicate with all its modifiers is called the complete predicate. 62
24. *Predicate Verb*. — The verb without its modifiers is called the predicate verb. 62
25. *Secondary Object*. — The secondary object completes the predicate and follows the direct object. 72
26. *Indirect Object*. — The indirect object names a person or thing indirectly affected by the action of the verb, and may be preceded by *to* or *for*. 72
27. *Appositive*. — An appositive is a noun placed after another noun to explain the first. 73
28. *Declarative Sentence*. — A sentence that makes a statement is called a declarative sentence. 78
29. *Interrogative Sentence*. — A sentence that asks a question is called an interrogative sentence. 78
30. *Affirmative Sentence*. — A sentence that affirms something as true is called an affirmative sentence. 78
31. *Negative Sentence*. — A sentence that denies the truth of a statement is called a negative sentence. 78
32. *Imperative Sentence*. — A sentence that commands is called an imperative sentence. 79
33. *Nominative of Address*. — The nominative of address is a noun or pronoun used independently to call attention and indicate the person addressed. 79
34. *Exclamatory Sentence*. — A sentence that expresses strong or sudden feeling is called an exclamatory sentence. 80
35. *Interjection*. — The interjection is a part of speech used independently to express strong or sudden emotion. 80
36. *Rhetorical Question*. — The rhetorical question is an interrogative sentence used where no answer is expected. 86
37. *Phrase*. — A phrase is a group of words having the effect of a single word. 103

38. *Preposition*. — A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show the relation between the person or thing named and some other idea in the sentence. . . . 105
39. *Object of a Preposition*. — The object of a preposition is the noun or pronoun that it connects with some other word in the sentence; it usually follows the preposition. . . 106
40. *Prepositional Phrase*. — A preposition with its object and modifiers is called a prepositional phrase. 107

APPENDIX D

SPELLING

COMMON WORDS OFTEN MISPELLED

(Each line is a Lesson)

1. unless, clothing, inspect, itself, something.
2. woman, able, watch, combination, fight.
3. young, dollar, evening, treasure, intrude.
4. walk, soap, avenue, teacher, afraid.
5. press, uncle, summer, above, express.
6. turn, grieve, rather, comfort, elect.
7. jail, another, parcel, ever, district.
8. royal, pleasure, church, own, interest.
9. before, navy, population, proper, worth.
10. figure, dead, leave, ground, such.
11. many, sudden, forty, instead, rate.
12. chief, morning, however, shall, order.
13. perfect, farther, duty, fifth, Christmas.
14. month, children, company, remain, direct.
15. appear, understand, follow, says, case.
16. member, enjoy, usual, complaint, vacation.
17. beautiful, also, office, Miss, flight.
18. rapid, carried, loss, fortune, died.
19. malice, few, please, money, impair.
20. mayor, degree, engine, visit, table.
21. entertain, drown, next, indeed, department.
22. obtain, family, Mrs., husband, herself.
23. power, wish, trust, extra, human.
24. clerk, o'clock, support, liberty, beside.

25. teach, happen, goal, fact, board.
26. September, attend, between, file, stood.
27. fix, goes, hold, public, friend.
28. during, madam, definite, third, push.
29. point, within, body, request, sometimes.
30. declare, engage, terrible, cause, peculiar.
31. matter, January, vote, period, employ.
32. select, connection, firm, famous, serve.
33. estate, question, size, remember, December.
34. dozen, forenoon, army, pretty, stole.
35. income, bought, running, include, allow.
36. claim, primary, paid, enter, railroad.
37. unable, result, Saturday, appoint, information.
38. whom, verify, court, copy, act.
39. yesterday, among, private, debate, crowd.
40. publish, represent, account, driven, real.
41. recover, steamer, themselves, justice, gentlemen.
42. enclose, await, anyone, brought, off.
43. took, wonderful, direction, forward, prompt.
44. attempt, capture, else, bridge, off.
45. built, although, suggest, absolute, whose.
46. front, rule, carry, chain, death.
47. warrant, imprison, written, decision, learn.
48. wonder, tire, check, prove, daughter.
49. reply, confident, nearly, stopped, motion.
50. theater, improvement, general, tomorrow, consider.
51. coward, complete, decide, publication, adopt.
52. provision, according, attention, mention, supply.
53. local, common, together, manner, article.
54. condition, divide, sincerely, athletic, entitle.
55. oath, folks, earliest, senate, past.
56. lead, awful, precede, consideration, colonies.
57. occupy, probably, achieve, fatigue, illuminate.
58. guarantee, devil, enterprise, crude, strict.

59. crystal, practice, conscience, opportunity, syrup.
60. model, quality, divine, technical, banquet.
61. plague, shriek, neutral, badge, ambitious.
62. catalog, ~~passenger~~, vengeance, annoyance, specialty.
63. garage, weird, Massachusetts, isthmus, banana.
64. mountain, commerce, grazing, agriculture, Pennsylvania.
65. British, equator, plateau, torrent, island.
66. climate, Connecticut, elevator, arctic, submarine.
67. hurricane, peninsula, Mississippi, blizzard, harbor.
68. cocoanut, Missouri, ooze, Maine, ravine.
69. Allegheny, Virginia, anthracite, inviting, Tuesday.
70. kerosene, accidental, disagree, accurate, benefited.
71. invisible, earnest, eight, prepare, kitchen.
72. destroy, early, agree, saucer, almost.
73. busy, juicy, suppose, exceed, maintain.
74. fiery, bureau, material, across, soldier.
75. moreover, stretch, feeble, strengthen, grating.
76. readily, generally, blonde, vinegar, superb.
77. bicycle, guardian, balloon, vegetable, surprise.
78. homestead, absence, treatise, prairie, omission.
79. grateful, nonsense, decimal, scarcely, suggestion.
80. seriously, lily, ascend, acquaintance, souvenir.
81. recent, specially, losing, salad, stomach.
82. lieutenant, uneven, language, culture, writing.
83. autumn, circle, fortieth, because, Wednesday.
84. pleasant, lose, journey, horrible, disappoint.
85. pierce, ache, loose, grammar, believe.
86. advisable, dryly, easel, irritate, professor.
87. necessary, symptom, operate, colored, measles.
88. cotton, dairy, needle, cough, speak.
89. speech, icicle, omit, haughty, much.
90. debtor, breakfast, approach, often, ankle.
91. until, carriage, source, apron, meant.
92. position, respectfully, eagle, possible, announcement.

93. committee, people, solid, touch, accusing.
94. rainy, Thursday, origin, extreme, tongue.
95. handful, hopeful, pursuit, angry, ocean.
96. eager, apiece, pity, toward, visitor.
97. great, relief, nuisance, village, hoping.
98. once, penciled, certainly, women, cheerful.
99. trial, reveal, proffer, sluice, surround.
100. promenade, satchel, reckon, conceal, recognize.

